

The Nation.

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The Week.

AS we go to press the election returns show a general Republican victory. In this city Tammany Hall has been beaten by a majority of nineteen thousand votes, and in the State at large seven Republican Congressmen have been gained, and the Assembly is more strongly Republican than for several years past. In New England, Massachusetts elects Talbot by a majority over all, and a heavier plurality over Butler than the most sanguine hoped for. The Democrats divided their votes between the two, but gave the "regular" candidate, Abbott, a creditably small number, say ten thousand. Butler's total, on the other hand, equals 108,000 against Talbot's 124,000. In the Congressional delegation Field takes the place of Dean, or rather retakes the place from which the Democratic House, following Butler's lead, unjustly ousted him. The non-election of Mr. Martin Brimmer is to be regretted, but happily the "main question" is safe in the hands of Mr. Morse, whose honest course pleaded strongly for his retention in his seat. If Loring is defeated in the Sixth District it can be borne. What is really serious, at least as regards the coming municipal election, is the Butler plurality of 2,641 in Boston. In New Hampshire the Republican victory is probably complete. In Connecticut there was no popular election of the Governor, but the complexion of the Legislature ensures the success of the Republican candidate. General Hawley replaces a Democrat in the House of Representatives, and a Republican senator will take Barnum's seat. In Vermont, Barlow, the Democratic Greenbacker, is elected. Pennsylvania is regained to the party by a large plurality, the Greenback party showing but little strength, although it sends Judge Kelley back to the House. New Jersey elects Robeson and gives the Republicans two additional Congressmen. In Maryland there is a gain of one Republican Congressman, while in the South generally there are indications of more indifference in some quarters and greater disruption of parties in others than was anticipated; the Republicans probably lose one Congressman. Virginia sends to the House Gen. Joe Johnston and J. Randolph Tucker. In the West there has been less disturbance by the Greenbackers than was generally feared, and the Republicans gain in Wisconsin and Minnesota, while the Democrats carry Missouri with a gain of three Congressmen. The general result is a gain of fourteen Congressmen by the Republicans, and the next Congress will probably be Democratic by a majority of thirty in the House and of eight in the Senate.

The result of the elections is likely to be very healthy in giving the Republicans practical assurance that in their present stand on the currency question they are on safe and winning ground; in substituting objects that are attainable by legislation, such as financial and administrative reform, for objects that are not attainable by legislation, such as the sudden regeneration of Southern society, which, like all visionary schemes, has of late been a curse to our politics; in satisfying people who were hoping to escape poverty and debt by Government aid that there is no immediate prospect of relief from that quarter. On the other hand, the exceeding agility displayed by certain Republican politicians, of which the Democrats do not seem able to make the slightest show, in dropping useless issues before it is too late, will restore prominence and influence to various persons who seemed likely even a year ago to be banished to that dismal abode of erring statesmen, "the back seat in the rear car." Robeson goes to Congress with all his sins upon him. Mr. Blaine has become the champion of sound finance, and Mr. Conkling has been shouting for hard money with brilliant success, and will probably have

another term in the Senate. The Democrats have, in fact, been beaten with every kind of weapon and in every kind of game. Their hand and head both seem to have lost their ancient cunning. In old days, for instance, they would never have allowed themselves to be made the victims of Senator Morton's stroke in securing and sorting their telegrams. The old Republican with the prunella gaiters and gold spectacles, whom the Democratic managers used to find it so easy to "euchre," has in fact disappeared from the scene. His successor is a person of a very different stamp.

The defeat of Kelly and Tammany in the city election, and the election of Mr. Cooper, is a valuable palliative, and will ease the city cancer for a year or two; but that it will give permanent relief it is useless to expect. The defeat of Willis by Mr. L. P. Morton is a special cause of congratulation, as it gives the city one representative in Congress, at least, competent to speak for it and to do it credit. O. B. Potter, whom Kelly put up in Mr. Hewitt's place, and had the impudence to talk of as a valuable defence against "Jimmy" O'Brien, has been defeated, but Jimmy has succeeded, and is actually the "reform" member from a city district, going to fill the place of Mr. Hewitt, one of the most valuable men of late years in public life, and whom in a real reform movement both parties would have united in sending back. Mr. Cooper will bring to his task a high character and high aims, but will probably be able to accomplish more by letting light into dark places than in any other way under the present system.

Governor Wade Hampton has been making a reply to the charge of not having kept his pledges with regard to the intimidation of Republicans in his State, with special reference to the recent disturbances in Sumter County. He went to Beaufort on the joint invitation of both Republicans and Democrats, and delivered an address on the 29th ult., in which he denied that he had in any way failed in his duty or had failed to prevent all outrages by the use of all the power in his hands, and repeated his promises to the colored people in the most solemn manner, while conjuring them to repudiate at once those of their leaders whose rascalities had been exposed. At this point he produced a thick pile of the evidence of the villainies of Smalls, the principal negro leader in Beaufort County, when that person was in the Legislature, showing, among other things, that he had on one occasion sold his vote for \$200, and had received \$5,000 of what is known in South Carolina as "the printing steal," which we some time ago explained in these columns. The Governor here produced the checks endorsed by Smalls, and invited such colored men in the audience as chose to come forward and inspect the statesman's signature, which a number of them did, and then "shook their heads significantly." On witnessing this dastardly performance, Smalls, who was on the outskirts of the crowd, in company with our old friend Whipper, indignantly disappeared, and was seen no more. It seems a pity that these elementary lessons in political morality cannot be given to the negro by Northern Republicans instead of being left to old Confederates.

Governor Hampton has also produced the Democratic version of the disturbances at Sumter in the shape of a report from General Johnson Hagood, who attended the meeting at his request. According to this, an attempt was made by the Democrats to bring about an amicable arrangement for holding the meeting together, to be addressed by two speakers on each side; but after some discussion this was declined, and two separate meetings were held, about two hundred and fifty yards apart. The Democrats had two guns for saluting purposes, he says, according to immemorial South Carolina usage, and he was told that the Republicans had arms concealed in the church in front of which their platform was erected. The meet-

ings went off peaceably; the Republican negroes flocked into the town, the Democrats following soon after in a procession. Some negroes formed "a mob" and tried to interrupt the procession; the townspeople rang the alarm-bell and called out a company of militia; some "young men" brought up one of the guns and loaded it with nails; there was an interchange of bad language between two white men on the court-house steps, and two revolvers were drawn; but peace was soon restored, and with it good humor, and, except a negro clubbed by a policeman for trying to rescue a prisoner, nobody was hurt. We dare say that this is a substantially true story, and it would not be worth reproducing but for the fact, which does appear through it, that, for some reason or other, the negroes are very nervous, and do hold their meetings under a certain apprehension, and do not like "dividing time" with the Democrats; and General Hagood doubtless could explain why this nervousness exists, and would probably confess that it was not wholly groundless. He mentions, for instance, that the colored county chairman at a precinct meeting had recently been knocked down by a Democratic speaker for "a personal indignity on the stand when the joint discussion was in progress"; and he mentions another case in which a revolver had been drawn on a Republican orator for speaking disrespectfully of Governor Hampton. Things of this kind, small as they may seem, explain why the Radicals do not enjoy "joint discussion," though, considering what South Carolina was ten or even five years ago, they may not excuse the way in which such incidents are magnified and made symptomatic by the Northern press.

A Republican subscriber, writing to us from Tidouate, Pa., complains of our imputations on the Republican managers with regard to the telegrams in the late Presidential canvass, and enquires: "Is it not extraordinary that if there were such telegrams" (*i. e.*, telegrams on the Republican side that would not bear publication), "only those of the Democrats should have been published, the whole lot, both Republican and Democratic, having been collected by a Democratic Committee of the House." To which we reply that the whole lot never were collected by a Democratic Committee of the House. On the contrary, Mr. Orton, representing the telegraph company, refused to surrender them to such committee, and, being driven to the wall, was summoned before the Republican Committee of the Senate, to which he did surrender them, and Senator Morton did then and there secure possession of them, and sorted them, took out what he wanted, and returned the rest to the company, and in this remainder neither the Democratic nor the Republican telegrams were found. The former have appeared in the *Tribune*, and have convicted a portion of the Democratic managers of a disgraceful attempt at fraud and corruption. But the gross evasiveness with which the discussion has been carried on is shown in the pretence lately put forward that the two or three telegrams which the Democrats caught by listening in Florida, and produced before the Potter Committee, and which W. E. Chandler offered to decipher, were the entire Republican correspondence, and that Chandler's proposal to show his account-books proved that he had spent no money in bribery. We do not rate that politician's mental powers highly, but no one can deny him a certain amount of low cunning. We feel quite sure he never kept a corruption account in his ledger.

The unexpected turn given by Mr. Evarts to the Fisheries dispute has apparently produced in both England and this country a momentary forgetfulness of the facts of the case. Stated in a concise form, they are as follows: By the Treaty of 1818 Americans were given fishery rights on certain coasts of British America without reference to the three-mile limit; elsewhere they were excluded from taking fish within that limit. By the Treaty of Washington this exclusion was removed, and the general right to fish in British waters "in common with" British subjects was given without reference to distance from the shores. A reciprocal right was also given to British subjects in American waters north of the 39th parallel. There were besides reciprocal engagements against shell or river

fishing. Citizens of both sections acquired a right to land for the purpose of drying and curing fish. The right to import fish and fish-oils into the ports of each nation free of duties was also reciprocally guaranteed. These rights were given for twelve years. By Art. XXII. the compensation to be paid either Government on an estimate of the balance of advantage was left to a commission. This commission afterwards awarded England \$5,500,000, which was to be paid within twelve months after the date of award. The award was made in November, 1877. At the last session of Congress an act was passed providing that the money should be given to England, unless, on correspondence between the two Governments, that country should fail to insist upon it. It will be seen, then, that the payment under the Treaty is a payment for a right which we have been enjoying for seven years. We have derived seven-twelfths of the benefit from the Treaty; and as we have bound ourselves to pay \$5,500,000 absolutely for the whole right, we clearly are now in Great Britain's debt (even on the theory that the Treaty has been violated and reduced to nullity by the acts of the Canadians) to the extent of seven-twelfths of \$5,500,000.

Now Mr. Evarts in his letter to Mr. Welsh takes the unquestionably sound ground that, whatever rights the Treaty gives us, they are not given subject to diminution by local regulation. The law of the fishery question is to be found in the Treaty of Washington and nowhere else. He grants that the language of the Treaty may be held to qualify the absolute character of the right given. American fishermen are not given a right to fish in British waters as in their own, but a right of an equal nature with the British. This equality of right is to be understood in a natural and plain sense, and means that American and British fishermen may enjoy such fishing rights in Canadian waters as the right of fishing generally includes; that is to say, they may take fish in the way that the custom of the pursuit or the necessities of the case require. It would not, for instance, be asserted that American fishermen might go and poison fish wholesale; they must fish as fishermen usually fish. Hence it would follow that reasonable regulations of the times and manner of fishing might be made, provided these affected fishermen of both nations alike, and did not *impair* the Treaty right. Captain Sullivan's report of the Fortune Bay affair represents that certain American fishermen had violated the Newfoundland laws prohibiting fishing on Sunday, fishing between the 20th of October and the 25th of April, and the "barring" of fish (a particular method of catching herring). Mr. Evarts takes the ground that such regulation, if permissible, must be made by a treaty supplementary to the Treaty of Washington; but it looks as if there might be a plausible argument on the other side, to the effect that they are reasonable regulations of a local character for the better preservation of the fish, and really intended not to impair but to carry out the Treaty. The enforcement of a "close season" is surely of this character. But Mr. Evarts has another point in reserve: the fact that these regulations were enforced not judicially, but by "the rage and predominant force of a volunteer multitude," or what common people call a mob. This seems far the stronger point of the two, though it would doubtless be replied that mere mob violence could be corrected by the courts, while legislative infringement of the Treaty cannot. Mr. Evarts's concluding sentence has the air of a threat not to pay the money under the award; but taking all of his language together, we think the payment will be made on the 24th.

The Indian outbreaks of the past year have led General Sheridan to incorporate into his annual report to the Adjutant-General of the Army an extended discussion of the causes and conduct of Indian wars. He shows that since 1869 we have taken from the Indians west of the Missouri River "their country and their means of life, broken up their habits of living," and at last succeeded, after war, in compelling them to remain on reservations, "with their limits circumscribed, their opportunities of hunting abridged, their game disappearing, sickness in their lodges from change of life and food, and this irregularly supplied." He reaffirms the fact that insuffi-

ciency of food has been the principal cause of the recent troubles, both among the Bannocks and Cheyennes, and traces the wars to the natural preference which men have for fighting rather than starvation; further, he prophesies that the same causes will eventually cause the other tribes of the north to rise, and forcibly points out the folly of the Government in limiting the Army to so small numbers when peaceful agricultural and mining communities are rapidly growing up within tempting reach of a sudden Indian blow. The late destruction of life and property by a hundred Cheyenne warriors in an unchecked raid of seven hundred miles is only a faint indication of what loss might result from a rising of thousands at once, when there is, on an average, but one soldier for the protection of every seventy-five square miles of territory. General Sheridan says that, in his opinion, "with wise management the amounts appropriated by Congress ought to be sufficient, if practically applied to the exact purposes specified," to provide supplies according to our treaty obligations, and he thus thrusts the blame upon the Indian Bureau. That is at least a question in dispute, and would have been even in the days of the Bureau's corruption, since the Bureau is constrained by the action of Congress; but it is clear from this report that we are now breaking our treaties and irritating a dangerous foe, while we at the same time leave the property and lives of our citizens defenceless against him.

There was, during the week, considerable improvement in the financial situation in London. The Bank of England gained specie to the amount of £1,200,000, and increased its reserve from 29½ per cent. of liabilities to 33½ per cent. The actual discount rate fell to 5½ per cent., although not formally changed by the Bank of England. British consols advanced ½ to ¾. A good part of the gold which the Bank of England has gained in the last few weeks came from Paris. At the close of the week sterling at Paris did not warrant shipments of coin to London. Here bills on London advanced nearly to the point which takes gold to London, but again declined, so that it is now very doubtful whether we shall export any gold this year; but this depends on the turn that financial affairs in London take. Silver in London advanced to 50½d. per ounce, and the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar advanced here to \$0.8585 gold, and closed at \$0.8507. It is not known whether the Treasury last week bought 400,000 ounces of silver or less. The "public proposals" to sell which were invited by the Treasury are treated as state secrets, and the "public purchases" are a farce. It is notable that investors are showing a marked preference for securities specifically payable in gold. At the Stock Exchange there was an active speculation in stocks. Western Union Telegraph was run up from 96½ to 102 on the report that the assets of the company were to be divided among the shareholders. It declined to 96½ on the denial of the report.

The decision of Secretary Sherman to withdraw from circulation all greenbacks and bank-notes of less denomination than five dollars, though arrived at late, is the most significant step yet taken to counteract the mischief of the Silver Bill and to secure some degree of safety to the proposed resumption of specie payments on the first of January. About \$55,000,000 of these small notes are out, performing the necessary functions of pocket-money and retail trade. As fast as they are withdrawn silver dollars must perforce take their place and fill the vacuum in the smaller transactions of the community. In this way all the silver now coined, and two or three times more, can be "floated" without getting in the way of resumption; that is, without creating an apprehension in the minds of the holders of greenbacks that they may shortly be paid off in silver instead of gold, and thus inducing a run upon the Treasury for gold. If the Secretary had adopted this policy when the first batch of silver dollars came from the mint, withdrawing the small notes *pari passu* with the coinage of silver, the problem of resumption would have been much less complicated than it is; and very likely the people would have become sufficiently disgusted ere now with carrying pound-weights in their pockets to

discuss the silver question on the principles of *avoirdupois*, in which case there would have been a chance of repealing the bill or "suspending" it, as they do in France. It was inevitable from the beginning either that the small notes must be withdrawn to make room for the silver dollars or that specie resumption could not last long.

The French elections of delegates to the Senatorial Electoral College seem at this writing likely to result in giving the Republicans a majority in the Senate of twenty-eight, or more than Gambetta anticipated and much more than is necessary to give them complete control of the Government and make the Republic the settled form. M. Gambetta's speech at Grenoble, and especially his allusions to the Senate and his estimate of its importance, continue to cause much discussion, and he has to defend himself against the extreme Radicals, who hate the Senate and deny the need of it, and the Moderates, who are frightened by his somewhat vague talk of raising new "*couches sociales*" into political power. He explains in his organ, the *République Française*, that he does not advocate making all citizens eligible to all offices, for that has been done long ago, but the use of Government to qualify them by "national instruction and civic education" to fill them with credit. He has succeeded in making M. Léon Say give up the conversion of the five per cents.

M. Cernuschi has been writing to the Paris *Siècle* to say that M. Léon Say proposes to renew the Silver Convention with the Latin Union for six years. Against this, however, the Bank of France protests strongly, as it has now in its vaults \$200,000,000 in silver, and of these \$60,000,000 are foreign coins of which it desires to be rid. The probabilities are that the Convention will not be renewed, and that the present suspension of silver coinage will continue. The news from India is also very alarming for the silver-men, as the disorder introduced into the finances there by the depreciation of the metal is so great that a heroic treatment seems to be called for, and the adoption of the gold standard is already talked of. All these things, especially since the reassuring result of the late elections, seems to point to the necessity of a vigorous effort on our part to suspend the operation of the Act of last session, and decide once for all that the standard of the civilized world is our standard. If India demonetizes, we and China shall be the only two great countries adhering to the money of the ancient Hebrews.

The Porte, in spite of the remonstrances of the British ambassador, sent some time ago an almost insulting despatch to Austria, declaring that, the Austrian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina having been marked by unnecessary violence and bloodshed and gross atrocities, the Sultan would not sign any Convention, as he would thereby be seeming to give his sanction to the slaughter and maltreatment of unoffending Mussulmans. It could not have rendered Count Andrassy a better service, as the attack on the army, in which the population of all parts of the Empire is represented, of course irritated even the Magyars, and destroyed all sympathy for the Turks; and it gave the count an excuse for writing a savage and crushing answer, in which he tells the Turks that their charges are "contrary to the truth"; that there is no evidence in support of them; that the conduct of the Austrian army has been good and humane, in spite of the fact that it has had to repel the attacks of "untamable savages"; that anyhow it contrasts favorably with the cruelty of Omer Pasha, commanding the Sultan's army against the Begs in 1851-2; reminds the Porte that if Austria had chosen to call on the Christians to rise the Mussulmans would have been exterminated, and that the latter therefore owe their lives to the forbearance of the occupying Government. In fact, it is doubtful whether a more contemptuous and insolent despatch has ever been addressed to an independent Government; but no one says it was not richly deserved. The Porte seems to take it in good part, for, on receiving it, it assured Austria of its friendly feelings; but its folly has destroyed the last hope of any recognition of the Sultan's authority in the provinces.

THE LATE REVOLT AGAINST THE BOSS.

THE municipal election of last Tuesday is worthy of more attention than it has probably received, owing to the illustration it affords of the permanence of the Boss type of municipal government and the increasing strength of its hold on the popular mind. It made its appearance in this city in less than ten years after the adoption of the present State Constitution, in the person of Fernando Wood, but in his time was regarded as a mere passing monstrosity which could be easily got rid of either by a popular uprising or by the interference of the Legislature. Both expedients were tried against him, and successfully. A good deal of the local administration was transferred to commissions, and a powerful popular opposition was organized which resulted in the defeat of Wood at the polls in 1858 by Daniel F. Tiemann. There was a great deal of hope and enthusiasm in the movement, because it was supposed that it would put an end to the Wood kind of political adventurer, and money was easily raised for it from "the property-holders and substantial men." Wood speedily got back again, however, and then the war drew away the attention of all honest men from municipal affairs. Under cover of this neglect Tweed began to lay broad and deep the foundations of the new régime. He was its Augustus, Wood having been its Julius Caesar, and by 1870 he was in the enjoyment of absolute power, and disposed of the city revenues almost at his pleasure. The uprising against him is fresh in everybody's recollection. It was very successful and roused great enthusiasm, and its result was again supposed to be a final riddance of the Boss type of government. Within three or four years of Tweed's fall, however, after a kind of interregnum, his successor reappeared in the person of John Kelly—honest, to be sure, but armed with essentially the same power and influence, and the object of the same kind of denunciations. Kelly decides, as Tweed did, who shall fill the various city offices, who shall represent the city in Congress, who shall fill vacancies on the judicial bench, what the city outlay and income shall be, and in what manner the expenditures shall be distributed, and nevertheless he keeps up all the forms of popular government. There is, as usual, a Mayor and Common Council, but they are simply the registrars of his decrees. Behind him there is the Tammany General Committee, which has all the appearance of a popular representation, but is in reality composed of his creatures. There could not be a more striking illustration of his power than was furnished before the late election by the report of the Committee of the Municipal Society appointed to look into the character of his nominees for the aldermen. They were almost all grogshop-keepers, and were almost all criminals—that is, persons charged with, noted for, or convicted of criminal offenses—and each, it was alleged, had a weakness for a different form of crime. One had committed manslaughter, another rape, another had sold offices, another kept a gambling-house, and so on. These charges may not all have been true; but in the selection of a body of men against whom they were made for the municipal legislature Kelly showed the almost unexampled strength and largeness of his authority. We can recall no previous case in which a despot has filled the high offices of his state with ignorant thieves and cutthroats. In fact, the American Boss is the first dictator on record to make no pretence of respect for the bases of civilization in the organization of his government—a circumstance which from one point of view is greatly to his credit, as it argues frankness and sincerity.

The weakness of the Boss system lies in the inability of the Boss to satisfy all his supporters—or, in the dialect of the régime, "to make the offices go round"; and the revelation of this has led to a new form of attack on him, of which the Republicans have, ever since the overthrow of the Tweed Ring and the rapid growth of the Democratic majority, shown a disposition to avail themselves, and to which they resorted in the election of this week. Enormous as Kelly's patronage is, and the patronage of a Boss in fact has to be, it falls far short of the needs of his voters. For scores of the captains he cannot find even petty clerkships, and for tens of thousands of

the rank and file who expect to be remunerated for their support he cannot find labor even at a dollar a day. The consequence is that he is constantly troubled with a Fronde of greater or less magnitude and malignity, who array themselves against him, not on the pretence of desiring better government than he provides, but for the avowed reason that he has not divided fairly. It was a secession of this sort on the part of "Jimmy" O'Brien—a gentleman who is reported to have begun his political career, like the late lamented Morrissey, in the criminal class—that brought Tweed to his ruin, and Kelly's power carries with it the same seeds of dissolution. Were the Boss an independent sovereign, he would dispose of these malcontents by decapitation or deportation, but, protected as they are by their United States citizenship, he is compelled to endure their presence and encounter them at the polls. Of late years the friends of reform, having tried most other devices unsuccessfully, have resigned themselves to the melancholy alternative of making common cause with these seceders, who usually belong to a type morally inferior to the Boss himself and his adherents. After Tweed's overthrow the Republicans were on the point of trying to rout Tammany by nominating "Jimmy" O'Brien for the Mayoralty, though we believe he is unable to read or write with any facility, and had, in his beginnings, a reasonable dread of the police. They afterwards took up Morrissey as the great municipal deliverer, and nothing more curious has occurred in our recent political history than the efforts of even respectable Republican papers to qualify him for his office, criminal as he was down to his death, by turgid accounts of the kindness of his disposition and his strict truthfulness. Had he lived we should probably have witnessed this year an attempt to put him in the field for the Mayoralty as a reform candidate.

The selection of a man of Mr. Cooper's standing and character for the purpose, from among the opponents of Tammany and the Boss, must be considered a piece of good luck—a lucky accident the recurrence of which cannot be counted on. In using the Anti-Tammany element as an instrument of reform at all the reformers cannot, however, confine themselves to men like Mr. Cooper. They have to accept and work with what is probably the basest and most degraded element in city politics—the class which the Boss cannot satisfy or which he finds too worthless to reward; and no thoughtful friend of good government can look on the alliance with anything but disgust and despondency, even if it occasionally results in things as good as the election of Mr. Cooper. In fact, it is proving, and must eventually prove, the source of subtle and fatal injury to all healthy public sentiment with regard to the cause and cure of municipal misgovernment. When the Republican press takes up, as it has to do in order to make the alliance work, some of the worst characters in city politics, and tries to put a good face on them, to embellish their past history, and make their scanty virtues cover their gross and notorious vices and rascalities, it of course strikes a blow at that popular respect for character to which, no matter how loose our legislation may be, we must look as the last resort for any real and permanent improvement in municipal administration. The whitewashing of men like O'Brien and Morrissey is, call it what we may, a terrible price to pay even for the defeat of Tammany and overthrow of Kelly; in fact, it can only be defended as a resort of despair.

The argument, which is freely used, that, even if we cannot get rid of the Boss, by defeating him occasionally by the aid of any instruments within our reach we shall make him cautious and timid and thus diminish his powers of mischief, might be sound if it were possible to repeat the process very often; but the truth is this policy defeats itself. It is a fight against the best sentiment of the community. Decent people may be cajoled once or twice into joining forces with the Boss's disappointed and disgusted adherents, and pretending to think well of them, but the evanescence of all good wrought in this way, and the degradation of having helped to put jail-birds in office, which the sober second thought brings home after election, not only make an indefinite repetition of the combination difficult or impossible, but deepen that

despair about the city government which is every year penetrating further into the tax-paying body. There has been less enthusiasm in the Cooper movement than in any similar movement before, and less money raised for it; and for the simple reason that less result is every year expected from fighting the devil with fire. The Tammany devil does not really mind fire. What really alarms him is holy water, and if there be not enough of this left in the city to give him an adequate sprinkling, we might as well let him have his way, in default of a radical change in the system by which he lives. It is a notable sign of the times that the rejection of the recently-proposed amendments of the Municipal Commission, to which both parties contributed, has not been followed on either side by the suggestion of any substitute, or by the slightest manifestation of interest in the most serious of existing problems—the government of our cities.

THE WORK FOR PEACE SOCIETIES.

THE late International Peace Congress in Paris was sufficiently successful to show that faith in establishing universal peace by what may be called mechanical contrivances—such as the creation of courts of arbitration and the draughting of rules for government of disputants when they get angry—has not, in spite of all the recent discouragements, greatly abated; but the futility of such efforts was curiously illustrated by the fact that the exercises were closed by an address from M. Richard, in which he made what must have been to Russians a most exasperating attack on Russia for going to war recently with Turkey. It is such criticism, and the spirit from which such criticism proceeds, that does most in our time to bring wars about; and to find it showing itself at the meeting of the friends of peace is a valuable exemplification of the difficulties with which they have to contend. The truth is, and every day shows it more and more clearly, that they do not begin their operations far enough back, and do not adapt their language to the great change which has within fifty years come over the government of states. They talk now as they might have talked in the last century—that is, as if the foreign policy of great states was still moulded by sovereigns and courtiers, and wars set on foot to gratify the pride or humor the whims of individuals. Vigorous hortatory denunciation delivered from a higher moral plane was perhaps a good enough weapon to use against such enterprises, but this was because it was supposed to have the opinion of the civilized world behind it. In our day wars are all, or nearly all, the expression of popular rather than of princely feeling, and have actually increased in number and in magnitude since the people began to take the management of their affairs into their own hands. It is to this supremacy of popular control, in fact, that we owe the increasing disposition of each nation to regard its own wars not, as formerly, in the light of simple displays of prowess, but of missionary enterprises, carried on for the moral and physical elevation of the race, and for that reason likely to be specially favored by Providence. Territory is conquered in our day not to give the conqueror pleasure or add to his power, as in the old days, but to improve the condition of the conquered, and make them the recipients of “blessings” of various sorts. It is on this missionary theory that the British Empire in India now rests; it is by it that the Russians justify their advances in Central Asia, their attacks on Turkey, and the Germans the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine. It is, for instance, only by considering the British Empire in India a regenerating instrument of incalculable usefulness that British tutelage of such a rotten concern as the Turkish Empire can be defended, or that a Christian gentleman like Sir Henry Elliot, the late British Ambassador at Constantinople, could be brought to say that even if 20,000 or 30,000 Bulgarians were massacred it made no difference, as long as it was settled British policy to uphold the Turkish Empire.

To say that these professions are hypocritical would be childish. A whole people cannot play the hypocrite. When a nation loudly proclaims its belief that its own wars are valuable moral agencies, we must, for practical purposes, assume that they are sincere. The steady refusal of a large and influential portion of the British press

to give foreign nations credit for this sincerity has become a disturbing force in politics of considerable power, and really deserves, more than any other phenomenon of the day, the attention of the friends of peace. The late civil war in this country came near receiving a frightful extension by the furiously denunciatory attitude towards the Northern people assumed by English society and its organs. The effort to save the Union was persistently ascribed to the basest motives; the leading men engaged in it were denounced as monsters, and the Northern troops as brigands capable of any atrocity, and the bloodshed was mourned over as if it were a new horror introduced into human society by the Yankees. In fact, as nearly every American traveller who visited England between 1860 and 1865 had occasion to remember, Americans were treated as persons under the dominion of a new order of motives of which nothing was known in English history, and as carrying on war under novel conditions and with novel aims, and whose guilt was so flagrant that they were passionately expected to confess it even at dinner-tables.

The weight of the blow struck by all this at the cause of peace can hardly be overestimated. Had a similar outburst of hostility been indulged in against any of the great military monarchies it must almost certainly have resulted in war. The gravity of it is not lessened by the change which English opinion has since undergone with regard to American affairs. On the contrary, this change seems to show that facts are no defence against this furious prejudice—that it may rage for years in defiance of them. This tendency to frenzied views of foreign affairs seems, too, in spite of the experience in the case of America, to have lost none of its force; for it has shown itself with equal virulence regarding Russia. The leading English Tory papers have now for two years, in the teeth of the most notorious facts of contemporary history, been treating the Russian Government as worse than that of Turkey, and bewailing the fate of people who pass from the latter to the former; and such facts (of which there are hundreds) as the rise of real estate three hundred per cent. in Batum since its transfer, make no impression on them. The Russian soldiers and officers, too, have been denounced almost in the same terms of abuse as were heaped on those of the United States fifteen years ago; and, indeed, they are accused of almost the same crimes, and on about the same kind of evidence. In 1865, after the surrender of Lee, one of the leading Tory papers gave a minute account of the hangings and confiscations with which the North was celebrating its victory, and the year before the *Saturday Review* commented with proper severity, but without a shadow of doubt, upon the ravishing of a lady's boarding-school in Tennessee by a Federal regiment, with the connivance of the officers—a sort of offence which the Russians, we are told, are now repeating in the Rhodope region with equal audacity. The accounts with which the English press has been filled of late of the character of Turkish government are shocking, but they seem to have no influence whatever on the analyses one finds in adjoining columns of the motives of the Russians in attacking the Turks. If English-speaking men and women were exposed to such a rule it would have been overthrown long ago by righteous English fury and sympathy, without much regard to the Sultan's sovereignty; but it seems to be absolutely incomprehensible in London drawing-rooms and newspaper offices that Russians should feel a glow of the same generous indignation for their kinsfolk in blood and religion.

What is perhaps most curious of all is that the progress of Russia in Central Asia is every day described as a record of amazing rapacity and unscrupulousness, the mere contemplation of which is enough to rouse the wrath of the mildest moralist; and yet it would puzzle the acutest moralist to point out in what it differed, either as to motive or means, from the construction of the British Empire in India, the story of which no Englishman reads without justifiable pride. It is this passionate love of a Pecksniffian treatment of foreign questions which is just now one of the greatest obstacles to peace and disarmament, and there is no way in which the Peace Society could work so effectually as in counteracting it, by making trustworthy and impartial reports on subjects of angry controversy.

It would not be easy work to do, but it would, if it succeeded ever so little, be more effective than denunciations of all armed aggression, even such as that which drove Austria out of Italy, and raised Bulgaria from the rank of a harem garden to that of a civilized state.

DUMAS'S "ENTR' ACTES."—II.

PARIS, October 18, 1878.

LEFT the "Entr' Actes" of Alexander Dumas, *fils*, in the year 1848, having shown the Dumas of that period full of anger against the men of the 24th February, who had proclaimed the Republic on the barricades; and at the time of the first Presidential election Dumas took sides against General Cavaignac, who had conquered the Socialist insurgents of June, the predecessors of the Communists of 1871. It was enough for him that Cavaignac was the son of one of the famous members of the Convention of 1793. Louis Napoléon was then only a name, but there is much in a name, and Dumas knew it. It is very singular, I might say it is very sad, to read at the distance of thirty years the promises which Dumas made then in his "Letters of a Provincial," in the name of Prince Louis: "France is convinced that the name which he bears will only inspire him with lofty ideas; she is convinced that God would not have taken him from prison and exile if he had not hidden designs on him; she builds her hopes on her memory; she is advised by her superstitions." . . . "He loves the people, and the people love him; is this not as good a guarantee of order and tranquillity as the 80,000 men and the guns which Cavaignac holds ready against insurrection?"

Louis Napoléon was elected, and everybody knows the rest. We do not find a line written by Dumas on politics during the long period of the Empire. It was the time when Dumas, still almost unknown in 1849, notwithstanding his name, built up his reputation as a dramatist. He had enough to do with his representations of his own pieces, from the "Dame aux Camélias" to the "Idées de Madame Aubray"; the great representation of the Empire was one in which he had no part. His sympathies were, however, with a régime under which he gained reputation and wealth, which was somewhat theatrical, and which left the men of 1848 in the shade of oblivion. The drama ended in 1870, and Dumas felt moved again to write on politics. He published a pamphlet under the title, "A New Letter of Junius." When he heard that Germany and France were quarrelling, he bought the photographs of Bismarck, of King William, of the Prince Royal, of Prince Frederic Charles, and of Queen Augusta. He did not send in his retirement for the photograph of Madame Bismarck, for, says he authoritatively, "Madame de Bismarck has not and cannot have any influence on the man of whom she bears the name." His analysis of Bismarck from the photograph is amusing (you must remember that this "Letter of Junius" was written at the very beginning of the war and before Paris was besieged). He infers many, many things from his study: Bismarck is a *man* ("Oh, oh! voilà un homme!"); he has no ambition, his celebrity is often an annoyance to him; he has wished to be a superior man to console himself for his incapacity to be a happy man. He is strong before men, and shows a great will, but when alone he has often said to himself "À quoi bon?" especially when his physical forces have failed him. After this analysis, Dumas undertakes to convince Bismarck that he must make peace at once. I cannot say that his reasons are very powerful; he continues in reality the study of the photograph. He sees in it that Bismarck is superior to a vulgar patriotism. "The more I study this face the more I see a singular compound: the highest and purest ideal and the coarsest manifestations. This man is what in the Kabala is called a *damné*. He has an exalted, almost virginal, devotion for the good, the beautiful, the just; he has softness, kindness, veneration, and (who among us would believe it?) good faith. He only deceives *à son corps défendant*, when somebody tries to be more cunning than himself. With a sincere man he is, or tries to be, perfectly sincere." There are many more things to be found, it seems, in this photograph, and it would perhaps amuse the Chancellor of Germany to find how suggestive this image becomes in the eyes of M. Dumas. He would probably shrug his shoulders at some things; some others would perhaps seem to him like a divination.

Dumas places the portrait of Louis Napoléon by the portrait of Bismarck. He remarks with reason that

"The man who was considered for twenty years the most cunning of statesmen was in reality one of the most *naïf* [there is no word that can

well translate *naïf*, a mixture of simplicity, of candor, and of stupidity]. All his life proves it, from the attempt at Strasbourg to the declaration of war against Prussia. His friendships, his love-affairs especially, denote the simplicity of a child. His only cunning, and it came from his temper, consisted in saying nothing in a country where everybody speaks. He was not only *naïf*, he was sentimental. He could never get rid entirely of the maternal romance [this is an allusion to "Partant pour la Syrie, le bel et beau Dunois, etc.," which had become a national air under the Empire, and was always played when the sovereign appeared], and his warlike tastes were only of the musical order. He was not, however, wanting in courage. He opposed more than courage to danger; he opposed to it indifference—he did not believe in it; he was convinced that he had a star, a peculiar destiny, and that he would not die without having accomplished it. . . . He hated bloodshed, notwithstanding what may be said of the 2d December, which he wished to be absolutely pacific, but which could not be so with our people. This horror of blood made him sign the peace at Villafranca and the surrender at Sedan. You will find the same proceedings in defeat and in victory. He was the same everywhere. Sedan is Villafranca reversed."

I can hardly agree with Dumas when he goes so far as to say that the Emperor Napoléon did not form any combinations, that he had not read Machiavel, and did not understand the outside world; that he was, in fact, "a sphinx without an enigma." That he was a fatalist is true, and, like all fatalists, he was in the end broken by the iron hand of destiny. But he did write in his youth the "Idées Napoléoniennes." I have just had under my eyes a copy of this book, which he timidly and respectfully offered to the beautiful Madame Récamier. He took the trouble to think, if he did not always well understand the forces with which it was his ambition to deal. Dumas comes nearer the truth when he writes:

"No sovereign (and two plébiscites are there to prove it) ever had such occasions to immortalize himself. He had on France a letter of unlimited credit. . . . A transition man, who was to lead France from one state to another state completely opposed to the first, he has been that doubtful shade and that uncertain light called the twilight, under which all objects take the strangest and the most varied forms. . . . Napoleon III. has remained all his life hesitating between what was going to die and what was about to be born, unwilling to retrograde in the night and not daring to jump into the day, darkened by the middle-age theories of which he was the last incarnation, blinded by the rays of the future. . . . He was no focus himself. He was one of the lights which are extinguished by the rays of the sun."

He then defends the Emperor from the reproach of not having favored the budding of great talents. Sovereigns have not much to do with talents. Louis XV. could not extinguish Voltaire. There was nothing to extinguish under Napoleon III.

"If M. Thiers had been willing to advise the Emperor in his Cabinet, instead of scolding him from the tribune, M. Thiers would have perhaps saved France. He was a great historian, a great philosopher, a great politician. It is true that by saving France M. Thiers would have strengthened the Empire, and that was not in his ideas. *Tant pis*. I believe that the true statesmen are not those who attack the power, but those who use it and cover themselves modestly with it in order to accomplish what they could not accomplish in their name alone."

Here we find the true theory of the school to which M. Dumas visibly belongs. He is a positivist in politics, and believes in no dogmas or constitutions. A sovereign is in his eyes an instrument for the statesman.

"If the sovereign is weak, it is all the better; the Richelieus are made for the Louis Thirteenth; the George Thirds are made for the Pitts. Only, the Richelieu and the Pitts are men of genius; to be a man of genius is the difficult thing. . . . We have dismissed our George III.; where is our Pitt? We are delivered of our Louis XIII.; where is our Richelieu? But look at this man with the ironical smile, the deep eye, who, notwithstanding the consciousness of his strength, because of that consciousness has not upset the power, but has screened himself behind it, and who says to you, now that his work is done, 'Gentlemen, where is the power with whom one may treat?'"

That power was found in the end, notwithstanding the resistance of Gambetta to the elections, in a Chamber, and peace was signed. On the subject of peace Dumas makes sentimental prophecies. He says to Germany that there are triumphs which are, so to speak, irreparable. "You had only prepared this formidable war because you felt that an invincible love of peace was coming. You have helped us to kill war. Humanity cannot for ever spend its life behind guns—the men on the drilling-ground, the women making cartridges; sending their children at the age of seventeen in front of the guns and under the rain of the shells. Before twenty years have passed, men—even Germans—will refuse to go to war without knowing why." But hear this tragic prophecy: "I am not Cassandra, but I think that I can predict to the King of Prussia, as did Priam's daughter so justly and so vainly to the King of Argos, that he will die a violent death in his own country. . . . Sire, take care of Karl Sand! *Cave, Caesar, mortui te salutant!*" Did ever Nobiling read these lines?

"Facts having proved that the men who tried to kill Louis-Philippe and the Emperor Napoleon III. did not appear in advance of the justice of the people, political assassination will cease to be a crime—it will be a mission; and the assassin will only answer his own conscience. . . . The assassin of a king will not be a murderer; he will be a precursor, and only condemned if he fails. . . . Assassination! This is the deplorable form, but the logical and peremptory form, which will be assumed by the universal revolution."

I will not even give a short account of the very unbecoming portraits which Dumas draws, always from his photographs, of Prince Frederic Charles and of the Empress Augusta. It is really extraordinary to find in the same essay pages which are deplorable in every respect, and other pages revealing as much beauty of style as depth of sentiment and of intelligence. We must make every allowance for the state of mind of the writer in this unfortunate year 1870; but I can hardly pardon the want of dignity of some of his remarks, when he speaks of the enemies of France. I can pardon him better when, in the hour of the defeat and degradation of his country, he begins the most enthusiastic praise of France. Chauvinism, as we call it, is pardonable, is generous, is noble after Sedan, if it is ridiculous after Solferino. Dumas ends by prophesying the universal Republic in Europe, in a Biblical style:

"And all the thrones will fall as if the earth was trembling, and the crowns will roll into the sea. And the kings will shriek loudly and run towards the pole; and there will be no more any France, nor England, nor Germany, nor Russia, nor this people and that other people: there will be but one family, the human kind; one object, truth; one master, love; one need, harmony; one method, which will be work; one law, which will be justice. And of these things three-fourths will be accomplished before the end of the century, and the last fourth in the first half of the next century" (December 20, 1870).

With all its alloy this "Letter of Junius" deserves to be read, as well as the long "Lettres sur les choses du jour" (dated June 6, 1871, and January 21, 1872), which follow and end the second volume of these "Entr' Actes."

THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE FUTURE.

BERLIN, September 24, 1878.

IN revisiting the representative German universities of Bonn, Leipsic, and Berlin, after an absence of nearly a decade, one is impressed by nothing more than by the changes which have taken place in philosophical sentiment and opinion. Hartmann, who had enthusiastic admirers in every students' club, is now to a great extent ignored. Lotze, who found great favor in all academic circles, has passed into history. Trendelenburg is dead, and deductive logic, which he made attractive to crowds of hearers, has fallen into comparative neglect. The Hegelism of Michelet has degenerated into fanaticism, while Zeller and Erdmann have still further qualified their earlier allegiance to the great master. Althaus, J. B. Meyer, and Kuno Fischer lecture on modern philosophy as before. The influence and authority of Kant have everywhere steadily increased, while Hegel's sun sinks still lower in his native land as it rises upon England and the Western world.

While the traditional philosophical disciplines have thus declined, philosophical questions have come to attract a deeper and more general attention than perhaps ever before even in Germany. The foundation of religious feeling, the essence, origin, and development of language, art, criticism, etc., have been discussed so thoroughly that each of these departments has opened more fully and distinctly than in England and America into the region of experimental psychology. The same in less degree is true even of history and social science. Courses of lectures on physics are introduced by the discussions of logical methods and of the problems and conditions of knowledge, and although it is felt more and more generally that the first principles of all science—even of mathematics—are provisional, there is no longer any war of hypotheses between chemistry, physiology, the science of light, sound, heat, etc. In testing first principles and in harmonizing if not organizing the special sciences, it is clearly seen that philosophical methods have a wider scope than ever before.

The new Philosophy of the Future, as it has been derisively called, took its rise in the physiological laboratory, and for a quarter of a century assumed to do no more than to investigate the conditions and mechanism of the senses, and the properties of nervous and muscular tissue. Thence it passed to anatomy, and finally to the study of the functions of the different parts of the spinal cord and brain. Even Ludwig, one of the ablest and most conservative of physiologists, has at last planned a very elaborate series of observations on the functions of the corpora quadrigemina. All these tendencies are now best epitomized in the

writings of Professor Wundt, who is unquestionably the coming philosopher in Germany. Nearly twenty years ago he saw the value of physiology as a philosophical propædæutic, and applied himself with great vigor to laboratory work and to compilation, and at length published a comprehensive text-book on physiology, which he has just revised in a new edition. Familiarity with the principles of physics is indispensable to the physiologist, and these next occupied his attention for several years till the publication of his hand-book of medical physics, and his treatise on physical axioms. Like Herbert Spencer's psychology, his 'Physiologische Psychologie' summarizes, and, to a great extent, systemizes, the results of vast fields of special research. Though his style is as heavy and tedious as Spencer's is clear and impressive, though he lacks the latter's boldness of conjecture, and still more his great fondness of bringing the universe under one set of formula, yet his knowledge of the history of philosophy, the principles of philology, and of all the details of methods and results of the anatomy and physiology of the senses and the nervous tracts and centres, is so much more extensive, that no one who has sympathetically studied both writers can hesitate to ascribe the greater philosophical acumen and significance to the Leipsic professor. Nor is this all. In his 'Mechanik der Nerven,' his last publication, Wundt gives the result of a long series of experiments, extending through several years, in which the methods of irritation by constant and intermittent currents are applied in a most original and ingenious way to investigate the processes of reflex action and of central innervation.

We venture to characterize in the briefest form a few of the positions of the new philosophy. Systems of thought should be studied sympathetically, but critically—from the outside as it were, and never from the standpoint of discipleship. Those philosophers who have had no distinct "school" are best understood. Hegel first in the modern world elaborated the monistic view of the universe, towards which, as opposed to dualism, the leading scientific minds, with few exceptions, now strive. Dialectics is a veritable principle, not of logic, but of sensation. Kant made an epoch by rightly insisting that the forms of time and space, as well as the categories, exist only in us, but he failed to explain how they arise. In other words, he elaborated the *Erkenntnistheorie* and left the psychological part of the problem unsolved. To this latter, which in some sense, indeed, conditions the former, Wundt addresses himself. The relations between the outer and inner life, between motion and sensation, or extensive and intensive magnitudes, cannot at present be mathematically formulated in the sense of either Herbart or Fechner, yet it is these relations which are kept steadily in view in his admirable summary of the conclusions of recent investigations respecting the growth, structure, and functions of nervous tissue, the special senses, and, finally, the brain itself.

Of the theory of the specific energy of nerves propounded by Müller, countenanced by Kant's 'Critique,' and now very widely accepted in whole or in part, Wundt is the ablest antagonist. Differences of nervous functions, he urges, depend solely upon the connections of tracts and centres, and very little upon inner structure. Even these connections are determined by experience and environment. The similarity of all nervous substance in form, and in physical and chemical properties, shows that the theory of aboriginal specific differences must give place to the notion of a gradual development. In the adult, no doubt, every distinct function has a distinct, though not exclusive, place in the central organism, yet the laws of vicarious action in disease and of multiplex representation, as well as the comparative non-specialization of functions now proved to exist in the brain of young animals, all show that here the philosophy of evolution confronts an immense problem, in the solution of which anatomy is to have a far greater significance than has hitherto been suspected in explaining the genesis of intelligence.

Whenever any nerve is irritated, a part of the excitation causes inner or molecular changes in the nerve itself, and part finds expression in "outer work," rise of temperature, muscular contraction, etc. By irritating a simple nerve-muscle preparation with a constant and an intermittent current at the same time, Wundt was able partially to isolate the former or inhibitory function, and thus to estimate how much force became latent, or was stored up for future work, at each instant during the course of a single muscular twitch. In the nerve-fibre the outer, in the ganglion-cell the inner, work preponderates. Fatigue or narcotics increase irritability, especially the latter. Every normal sensation and, under certain conditions, even motion, both of which, it is postulated, must be grounded on purely mechanical laws, furthers thus the accumulation of energy in the nervous system. The quantum of "unstable equilibrium," possible and actual, is thus great in proportion as the active

responses to impressions from without are deliberate, intense, and prolonged. These researches afford us the deepest and most significant insight into the physical nature of psychic processes that science has yet been able to obtain, and give still further countenance to the view that, in proportion as conditions can be controlled, physiological, if not indeed psychological, results approach mathematical uniformity and accuracy.

Omitting Wundt's exhaustive and original treatment of feeling, of the special senses, of dreams and hallucinations, attention, instinct, association, reflexes, etc., we have space only to refer to his theory of gestures. These he classes according to their origin, as, 1, Changes due to direct innervation. Every emotion or conception increases or diminishes muscular tension in various parts of the body, especially the face and hands. Blushing, fainting, and the secretion of tears are for the most part purely physiological, mechanical, and independent of the control of the will. 2, Changes due to association of similar sensations. Sour is tasted at the edge of the tongue, and causes the lips and cheeks to be drawn toward either side and away from the sensitive parts of the gustatory surface. Bitter is tasted at the back of the tongue and on the soft palate, and is swallowed while the latter is raised and the former depressed. Sweet, on the other hand, causes the tip of the tongue where it is perceived to be pressed against the lips, that the agreeable sensation may be intensified and prolonged. All impressions which cause feelings that are in any way analogous to these three fundamental tastes come finally to be expressed by similar positions of the mouth. The mimesis of the nostrils is treated in the same manner. The eyes are strained open and the ball slightly protruded to catch impressions in comparative darkness or towards objects which excite pleasurable interest, or they are nearly closed to exclude too intense light. Hence, by the principle of association, the expressions of the upper part of the face are developed. 3, The relations of motion to sense-perception. If the object is present, it is designated by a nod or a movement of the hand; if not, it is imagined as present or described in pantomime. In attention, the eye is fixed on a fancied object; in surprise, it is suddenly closed, etc. The wrinkles on the forehead and the position of the eyebrows are in fixed association with ocular expressions. Language is only the most specialized and perfect form of gesture, and is developed according to these three laws. Words, like gestures, are either demonstrative or predicative. Syntax primitively arranges expressions according to the order in which they interest the speaker. This is mainly determined by the eye, while impressions which come through the ear can only affect the form of the word.

The breadth of the field which Professor Wundt has opened to the student of philosophy, his systematic organization of scientific results, the fertility of his suggestions, the new logical methods which he has applied and is now putting into symmetrical form, his acquaintance with and vigorous criticism of Mill, Spencer, Bain, Darwin, etc., all combine to make him deserving of more attention than he has yet received outside his own country, and indicate more, perhaps, than the writings of any of his contemporaries the direction which philosophical thought is likely to take during the next decade.

Correspondence.

'THROUGH THE KEEP-IT-DARK CONTINENT.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following paragraph appears in the New York papers:

"Messrs. Harper & Brothers, of this city, have brought a suit in the United States District Court for the Southern District of Ohio against Robert Clarke & Co., of Cincinnati, for an infringement of the copyright laws in the sale of a Canadian edition of Stanley's recent work on Africa. The book was published in one volume by the Rose-Belford Publishing Company of Toronto, and Messrs. Clarke & Co. sold thirty-five copies of this edition previous to the publication by the Messrs. Harper. The parties are friendly and the suit is brought to test the validity of Stanley's American copyright."

In reference to the above will you please allow us to say that we have not published Mr. Stanley's book on Africa? It was published here by one Magurn. What we did issue was a *brochure* from the pen of Mr. F. C. Burnand, of London, entitled 'Through the Keep-it-Dark Continent,' a humorous burlesque, of about a hundred pages, on Mr. Stanley's great work. We hope you will allow us to make this denial in the columns of your widely-circulated journal. Yours, very respectfully,

ROSE-BELFORD PUB. COMPANY.

TORONTO, 31st October, 1878.

Notes.

SIDNEY S. RIDER, Providence, continues his Rhode Island Historical Tracts with No. 4, Dr. Henry E. Turner's 'William Coddington in Rhode Island Colonial Affairs'; and his Personal Narratives of the Battles of the Rebellion with No. 4, a very graphic account of the loss of the *Monitor*, and No. 5, 'Kit Carson's Fight with the Comanche and Kiowa Indians.'—Macmillan & Co. have in press a new edition of Waterton's 'Wanderings in South America,' edited with illustrations by the Rev. J. G. Wood.—Scribner & Co. send us bound volumes of their monthly for 1877-78, and of *St. Nicholas* for the same period. Nothing need be said of the pictorial excellence of these publications, and our readers have had our current opinion of the magazine as issued. In saying that *St. Nicholas* surpasses all its rivals we waive the question of the advantage of juvenile periodicals.—The Authors' Publishing Company announce 'Our Wedding Gifts,' by Amanda M. Douglas; 'In Dead Earnest,' by Julia A. Breckinridge; and 'Linda,' by Mrs. H. L. Crawford.—The *American Naturalist* for November has an interesting paper by Prof. G. Brown Goode on the popular names of the fish best known as "menhaden"—in these waters as "moss-bunkers." There are twenty-eight other designations of the same fish from Maine to Florida. The Indian word from which *menhaden* is derived signified its aboriginal and later use—"fertilizer."—The weighty article in No. 7 of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History* is Prof. Oswald Seidensticker's account of William Penn's travels in Holland and Germany in 1677.—Dr. Leopold Damrosch announces that under his direction the Symphony Society of New York will give a series of six concerts and as many public rehearsals at Steinway Hall, beginning, for the rehearsals, this Thursday afternoon, Nov. 7, and for the concerts on Saturday evening, Nov. 10, when Herr Wilhelmj will appear. Dr. Damrosch will also conduct the four rehearsals and four concerts of the Oratorio Society at the same hall, beginning Nov. 29. Handel's "Messiah" and "Alexander's Feast," Mendelssohn's "114th Psalm," and Kiel's "Christus" (a new work) will be rendered by a choral force of three hundred voices.—Numismatists will be interested in the auction sale of Mr. Henry W. Holland's valuable collection of coins and medals, announced by Bangs & Co. to take place every afternoon of next week at their rooms, 656 Broadway. The curious Chadbourne collection of "store-cards" will also be disposed of at the same time.—With the first of this month that excellent Italian weekly, *La Rassegna Settimanale*—certainly the most satisfactory politico-literary journal in the Peninsula, especially for a foreigner's reading—transfers itself from Florence to Rome.—In No. 10 of the *Librarian* there is an interesting account of the Rochambeau Papers, the purchase of which by our Government is so earnestly to be desired, and of which the value is here made apparent. The *Librarian*, by the way, is a little eight-page sheet, published weekly in Philadelphia as a means of making known the new books received by the leading libraries of that city. The titles are often followed by notes after Mr. Cutter's example.—The *Illustrirte Zeitung* for Sept. 28 has a brief notice of the discovery of a hitherto unknown account of the death of Gutenberg in a manuscript in the Wallraf-schen Library at Cologne. The MS. contains a number of Latin poems of Johannes Butzbach, and in one of them, an epistle of about 2,000 verses written in 1514, it is told how Mayence had become famous through the discovery of a way by which the works of old writers, who had long been forgotten, could be reproduced in a short time; but that this had been the cause of the death of the inventor. He was dragged from his house by a mob, thrown into a wagon amid universal execration, carried outside the gates and strangled. The verses conclude with a moral on the dangers attending too hasty gains.—Recent decisions of our Post-Office Department show our present attitude towards the Postal Union, in what concerns dutiable matter, to be as follows: Any postmaster may deliver at his discretion parcels containing periodicals and not exceeding two pounds three ounces in weight, provided there be no ground for supposing that the recipients intend to dispose of said periodicals by sale; and books not exceeding \$1 in value. It would be interesting to listen to a Cabinet discussion on the bearing which Mr. Evarts's argument in the Newfoundland fisheries dispute has on our opposing our local tariff legislation to the general regulations of a Postal treaty.

—The Harpers have published two English Literature Primers by Eugene Lawrence, entitled respectively 'Romance Period' and 'Classical Period,' which are intended to give a review of the literary life of Eng-

land from the birth of Chaucer to the death of Johnson. It is difficult in so succinct a sketch to avoid dryness, but it is possible to be accurate, and this Mr. Lawrence is not always. His index contains more than one hundred and fifty subjects that are treated in as many pages. The first item is "A B C rules," and upon turning to the page indicated we are informed that Chaucer's "A B C" was "rules of love" written for the Duchess Blanche! If Mr. Lawrence had ever read so far as the title of this production he would have found that it is "called *La Prière de Notre Dame*," and is in reality a devotional poem, in the form of an acrostic, addressed to the Virgin. A few pages further on Mr. Lawrence says: "The Clerk's Tale is from Petrarch's Latin version of Boccaccio, and the patient *Griselda* an Italian legend," evidently quite unconscious that the Clerk's Tale is the legend of *Griselda*. Of *Troilus* and *Cressida* he says: "It was abridged by Petrarch, but Chaucer does not mention Petrarch as its source." Does Mr. Lawrence know that the reason why Chaucer "does not mention Petrarch" is that his poem is based upon the *Filostrato* of Boccaccio? Other Chaucerians will be glad to learn where Petrarch's abridgment of the story may be found. It seems as though a writer on Chaucer ought at least to have read as much of him as the Prologue to the *Canterbury Tales*, and yet we are disposed to doubt that this author has done so much when we find him giving the Host of the Tabard credit for "real politeness" when he asks the knight to begin the story-telling, since the order was determined by lot, as the Prologue repeatedly states. We are not surprised after this to read that the Knight's Tale exhibits the change of the "fraternal love" of "the unhappy brothers," Palamon and Arcite, into hate, though the poet makes those heroes cousins; nor to be told that "there is no intense or elevated feeling in all his [Chaucer's] writings"; or that "loose tales" follow the story of *Meliheus*, when in fact the loose tales had been previously told. Probably Mr. Lawrence's index has opened to us the most faulty portion of his work, and we are inclined to take that view of the case; but we find that, if his facts are correct elsewhere, his style is almost always open to objection. The temerity of his generalizations, in particular, is school-boyish. It is safer for the searcher for information on the history of our literature to go to an author who knows what he is writing about, and is not so pressed for space that he cannot be discriminating in his criticisms, than to depend upon such primers as these.

—In a note following the preface of his new book on 'Diderot' (Scribner & Welford) Mr. John Morley charges Franklin or Silas Deane with untruthfulness concerning the speech of Miss Polly Baker. Mr. Morley presents extracts from this speech on pages 281-2 of his book, and follows them with a story of Franklin's statement that he was himself the author of the speech and that it was altogether fictitious. This statement, Mr. Morley says, must be untrue, because an American correspondent informed him that the entire speech by Miss Polly Baker appears in the *American Law Journal*, published at Philadelphia in 1813, vol. 4, p. 458, and is there said to have been "delivered before a court of judicature in Connecticut, where she was prosecuted." Upon reference to this *Journal*, known as *Half's Law Journal*, the speech there appears as stated, but without date or other reference. The story which Mr. Morley relates about Franklin's authorship is taken almost verbatim out of Parton's 'Life of Franklin,' vol. 2, p. 418, and by Mr. Parton in the same way from Jefferson's works, vol. 8, p. 501, where Mr. Jefferson gives it as a conversation with Franklin. The speech is to be found also in the March number of the *American Museum*, 1787, or volume one of that magazine, p. 212. That in the *Law Journal* is an exact copy from the one in the *Museum*, with the exception of the note at the end, wherein it is related that this "judicious address influenced the court to dispense with her punishment and induced one of her judges to marry her the next day; she ever afterwards supported an irreproachable character and had fifteen children by her husband." This note would have thrown some light upon this extraordinary speech, but it seems to have been purposely omitted by all parties. In what newspaper or how much earlier than 1787 the speech was printed we do not know. The version quoted by Mr. Morley was probably taken from Justamond's translation into English of the Abbé Raynal's 'History of the Indies' (Book 17), first printed in London in 1783. It is very different from the genuine version, having been first translated from the English by the Abbé Raynal into French, and then by Justamond back into the English. Mr. Morley gives the date of the first publication of the Abbé Raynal's History as 1772; Brunet, usually relied upon as an excellent authority, gives it as 1780, and that of the English translation as above stated, so that Raynal (who died in 1796) could not well rely on the *Law Journal* as authority, nor (his book having appeared at all events before March, 1787) upon the

American Museum, but he must have seen the newspaper to which Franklin refers. It is not apparent, therefore, upon the facts that Mr. Morley has caught either Franklin or Deane in a falsehood. To sum up, the *American Law Journal*, which Mr. Morley quotes as an authority, is in no sense a current reporter of the decisions in the courts of the time, such as are the law journals of the present day, but a sort of omnium gatherum, and in the present case gives no dates, and names no county where the transactions took place, but reproduces, without mention of the fact, an article from the *Museum* printed twenty-six years previously.

—It may not be amiss to present the curious with a slight summary of the alleged speech of Miss Baker. It is stated that she was brought before the court for the fifth time, on the charge each time of having bastard children. This time she acknowledges the fact; says that twice she paid the fines imposed, and twice was punished for lack of means with which to pay the fines; thinks all this may be in accordance with the law, but argues on the unreasonableness of the law, which punishes her, who at the risk of her life has brought five children into the world, maintained them well by her own industry without burdening the township, and fitted them to become good subjects of the king; that she has wronged no one, unless it be the minister or justice, by reason of their having missed a marriage-fee; that she would have much preferred to be married, never having refused an offer of marriage, but, on the contrary, accepting the first one she had, and the result was she unhappily lost her own honor while trusting too much to *his*; that she had been most severely punished, while he had been raised to an office of honor and profit, being, in fact, one of the judges in that very court in which she was being tried, but not upon that occasion present. She reminds the court that, according to their belief, she has offended heaven and must suffer eternal fire, and urges if that is not sufficient punishment without their intervention; at the same time declares her unbelief in such doctrines as that Heaven is angry at her having children, when to the little she had done towards it God had been pleased to add his divine skill and admirable workmanship in the formation of their bodies, and crowned it by furnishing them with rational and immortal souls. She further argues that, if men must be eternally making laws, they ought at least to leave alone the natural and useful actions of men, and not by their prohibitions to turn such actions into crimes. They ought to punish the bachelors, who do nothing to populate the country, but leave unproduced (which is little better than murder) hundreds of their own posterity, while young women are most severely punished for obeying the first great command of nature and of nature's God, to increase and multiply—a duty from the steady performance of which nothing has been able to deter her; and that the court, instead of punishing her, ought to erect a statue to her memory. Then follows the note which is quoted above, that one of the judges married her the next day, and she had fifteen more children.

—To most American readers we should imagine that the name of M. Eugène Labiche was a name only; it may be unrecognized even by those who have again and again been amused by the gay creations of his fertile fancy. M. Eugène Labiche is the foremost comic dramatist of France, and for nearly forty years has been putting forth comedies and farces, in one or more acts, constructed with skill, conducted with ease, and filled full of joyous gaiety. The farce sometimes, although rarely, exaggerates itself into burlesque, but it is always founded on a genuine comic idea. M. Augier, at whose instance M. Labiche is now collecting his plays together and issuing a 'Théâtre Complet,' of which four volumes have already appeared, and for which M. Augier has provided a preface, compares the plays of M. Labiche to the pictures of Teniers: "There is, at first glance, the same aspect of caricature; there is, on looking more closely, the same delicacy of tone, the same exactness of expression, the same vivacity of movement. The foundation of these *joyeuses à toute outrance* is truth. Seek among the highest works of our generation a comedy of more profound observation than 'Le Voyage de M. Perrichon,' or of more philosophy than 'Le Misanthrope et l'Auvergnat.' Well, Labiche has ten plays of this rank in his repertory." And a reading of the volumes of the 'Théâtre Complet' which have already appeared bears out the truth of this generous praise from the present master of the French stage. Like all French authors M. Labiche does not write for young ladies' schools, but, making due allowance, the tone of most of these plays is healthy. And in the second volume of the 'Théâtre Complet' it happens that there is no objectionable play whatever, and indeed no objectionable phrase. This is the more fortunate as this second volume contains the "Voyage de M. Perrichon," and four

other plays, "La Grammaire," "Les Petits Oiseaux," "Les Vivacités du Capitaine Tic," and "La Poudre aux Yeux," all of which can be cordially recommended to American families seeking either improvement in French conversation or merely desiring amusing reading. The latter play has long been known to American readers in the excellent 'College Series of French Plays,' edited by Prof. Bôcher of Harvard. The others are not inferior to it. The comedies in this volume also afford excellent models for the long-expected American dramatist; they are less farcical than most of the author's. To him the English stage is already indebted—thanks to the ubiquitous adapter—for dozens of light and lively little plays, including the "Phenomenon in a Smock-Frock," the "Fearful Tragedy in the Seven Dials," and even the perennial "Box and Cox."

—For any one beginning the study of the Italian dialects no better work could be recommended than that by Francesco Corazzini, entitled: 'I componimenti minori della letteratura popolare italiana nei principali dialetti' (Benevento, 1877). The contents consist partly of poetry and partly of prose, the latter embracing twenty-nine popular tales from Tuscany, Benevento, Bologna, Bergamo, and Vicenza, which are for the most part variants of stories already published in the collection of Pitri, Comparetti, and Imbriani. The poetry includes over a thousand *canti*, of which seven hundred and sixty-eight have never been published before. These *canti* are distributed into three books: Language and Songs of Children, Songs of Love, and Miscellaneous Songs. The first book is preceded by an essay on children's language, with two tables of the most common words used by them in the different provinces; then follow cradle-songs, games, festivals, diversions, and nonsense rhymes. Many of the games and nursery rhymes are, it is almost needless to say, the common property of the Aryan nations. The two other books add largely to the already enormous mass of Italian popular poetry published within the last twenty-five years. A glossary and index of localities add to the value of the work, the wide range of which may be seen from the fact that eighty-seven localities are represented.

—The three great lexicographical works for the study of the Icelandic and Old Norse are: 1. Johan Fritzner's 'Ordbog over det gamle norske Sprog,' published in Christiania, Norway, in 1859. The definitions are in modern Norse or Danish. 2. Sveinbjörn Egilsson's 'Lexicon Poeticum Antiquæ Linguae Septentrionalis,' published in Copenhagen in 1860. The definitions in this are in Latin, and it is intended especially to facilitate the study of the Eddic and Skaldic lays. 3. By far the best, and one indispensable to all Icelandic and Old Norse students, is the 'Icelandic-English Dictionary' which was originated by the late Richard Cleasby, but arranged, enlarged, and completed by Dr. Gudbrand Vigfusson. It was printed by the Clarendon Press and published by the University of Oxford in 1874, and contains also the Outlines of Icelandic Grammar and a valuable Introduction by the eminent Icelandic scholar, Dr. George Webbe Dasent. This elaborate work marked a new epoch in the study of Icelandic and English philology and of the Teutonic languages in general. An appendix to it by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, consisting of a list of English words the etymology of which is illustrated by comparison with Icelandic, was recently issued by the same press. The list contains about six thousand words with reference to the corresponding words in the 'Icelandic-English Dictionary.' Still, those who have had occasion to use these dictionaries must have met with frequent disappointments. Many words have been sought for in vain, and of others the definitions and references have been found insufficient. Icelandic lexicography is yet so new a field of study that we cannot expect our dictionaries to be exhaustive; and, furthermore, new saga-manuscripts are annually being published to which our lexicographers were, of course, unable to give references. Of great value and importance, therefore, is the 'Supplement til islandske Ordbøger' (Supplement to Icelandic Dictionaries) by the learned rector of the Icelandic University, Jón Thorkelsson. It contains about three thousand Old Norse words not found in any of the above-named dictionaries. The definitions are given in modern Danish, and there are references to twenty-eight old sagas that have been carefully read in connection with the preparation of the 'Supplement.' The book has only ninety-six pages of closely-printed matter; but, small as it is, it is the fruit of long and patient research. The finding of three thousand words not given, or insufficiently defined, in Fritzner, Egilsson, or Cleasby-Vigfusson, any scholar will readily understand to be no easy task. All libraries and scholars possessing any of the three large works should not fail to secure a copy of the 'Supplement,' which may be obtained, we suppose, directly of Prof. Jón Thorkelsson, Reykjavik, Iceland.

SEWALL'S DIARY.*

II.

IN England Sewall safely arrived, and certainly proceeded to look up his relatives and those of his wife with undeniable promptness. With Mather he at first agreed and acted as assistant in some political affairs. The accession of King William, which had taken place while Sewall was at sea, aroused the strongest hopes in the minds of the agents of Massachusetts. Mather, especially, was indefatigable in his exertions to procure a renewal of the old charter. Various pamphlets, for an account of which the reader is referred to the Andros Tracts, were published for and against this course. Sewall was at least consulted on the Colonial side, and perhaps assisted in the composition of some of these documents. In the midst of it, June 28, they received the news of the rebellion in Massachusetts and the overthrow of Andros, as set forth in Byfield's pamphlet.

Evidence will be found that Sewall was not of the Mather faction, although he was a personal friend of the able envoy from Massachusetts. He seems to have taken no further active part in the struggles for a renewal of the charter, and on the 10th of October, 1689, he sailed for home. He arrived November 29, and on December 5 was sworn in again as one of the Assistants under the revived government of Bradstreet and Danforth. Until the arrival of Phips, as is well known, Massachusetts remained under the forms prescribed by the old charter. During this period a war with the French and Indians was the prominent incident, and in April, 1690, Sewall visited New York, being, with Stoughton, a commissioner to concert measures with the other colonies.

Another public duty which Sewall undoubtedly performed was the preparation of the pamphlet entitled 'The Revolution in New England Justified,' etc., in answer to Palmer's 'Defence of Andros.' It was printed in 1691, and the preface is signed by E. R. and S. S., initials always assigned to Edward Rawson and Samuel Sewall. But no reference will be found in the 'Diary' to the preparation or appearance of this book.

We now reach the period which has given to Sewall's name an undesirable notoriety—the days of the witchcraft delusion. The references to it in the 'Diary' are, unfortunately, very few. He writes as follows:

April 11th 1692. Went to Salem, where, in the Meeting-house the persons accused of Witchcraft were examined; was a very great Assembly: 'twas awfull to see how the afflicted persons were agitated. Mr. Noyes pray'd at the beginning, and Mr. Higginson concluded. [In the margin], *Væ, Væ, Væ, Witchcraft.*

The foot-note appended to this passage is worth repeating for its own sake and as evidence of the character of the editing:

"The references to the terrible paroxysm of delusion and cruelty connected with the subject of witchcraft in Salem village are not so frequent in Mr. Sewall's Journal as we should have expected to find them, but the few which he has made indicate his profound belief in the reality of the alleged enormity while the proceedings were going on, and subsequently his penitence and deep contrition for the share he had had in them when the spell of the delusion was broken. All that the reader may care to know about this distressing subject will be found most ably and wisely set forth in the two remarkable volumes, composed after a most exhaustive research, and luminous with the clear and candid intelligence of the author, by our late associate, Charles W. Upham, entitled 'Salem Witchcraft, with an Account of Salem Village.'

"There had been legal proceedings against reputed witches before the local magistrates in Salem more than a month previous to the date of Sewall's visit there, above recorded. He went thither with the Deputy-Governor, Stoughton, and four other magistrates, for the examination of the last two accused persons. Nearly a hundred of such victims were then in the jails, awaiting trial. On Governor Phips's return from his Eastern war expedition, he appointed, for the emergency, a special commission of Oyer and Terminer, of which Stoughton was the chief, with six associates, including Sewall. It must be taken for granted that Sewall had been trying to qualify himself for his duties as a magistrate, though we have no information as to his legal studies. Indeed, neither of his associates had had any training as a lawyer, the authorities of the colony having always discouraged the presence of that professional class among them. We may not wonder, therefore, that the rules of evidence were so slightly regarded in that tribunal, which was itself of questionable legality, as not commissioned by the General Court. But what signified professional legal training or judicial rules of proceeding and evidence in dealing with a stark delusion, common then to all Christendom, under the spell of which the most eminent judges and lawyers of all the governments of Europe condemned hundreds of thousands of victims?

"A few facts and dates may be of service to the reader. The special Commissioners of Oyer and Terminer were appointed June 13, 1692. They were William Stoughton, John Richards, Nathaniel Saltonstall, Wait Winthrop, Bartholomew Gedney, Samuel Sewall, John Hathorne, Jonathan Corwin, and Peter Sergeant, or any five of them; and their jurisdiction was to be in the counties of Suffolk, Essex, and Middlesex. No record of the doings of the court is now to be found. It opened in Salem in the first week of June, 1692, and met by adjournments on June 20 and August 5.

"After the executions, on the 22d of September, the court adjourned to meet some weeks subsequently; but they met no more. Nineteen persons, says Hutchinson, had been executed, all asserting their innocence.

"In January, 1693, the grand jury brought bills against about fifty persons, but all were acquitted save three, and those were reprieved.

"Hutchinson (Hist., II. 61) gives a well-authenticated story that Lady Mary Phips, wife of the Governor, did a brave and generous act by signing a warrant for the discharge of a prisoner. The jail-keeper obeyed, and lost his place therefor, but he must have rejoiced afterwards at his costly error."

That Sewall lived to see the error of his course and to confess his mistake publicly, is also set forth in his Journal. He writes as follows, under date of January, 1696-7:

Copy of the Bill I put up on the Fast day; giving it to Mr. Willard

* 'The Diary of Samuel Sewall.' Vol. I. 1673-1700. Pp. 509. Boston. 1878.

as he pass'd by, and standing up at the reading of it, and bowing when finished; in the Afternoon.

"Samuel Sewall, sensible of the reiterated strokes of God upon himself and family; and being sensible, that as to the Guilt contracted upon the opening of the late Commission of Oyer and Terminer at Salem (to which the order for this Day relates) he is, upon many accounts, more concerned than any that he knows of, Desires to take the Blame and shame of it, Asking pardon of men, And especially desiring prayers that God who has an Unlimited Authority, would pardon that sin and all other his sins; personal and Relative: And according to his infinite Benignity, and Sovereignty, Not Visit the sin of him, or of any other, upon himself or any of his, nor upon the Land: But that He would powerfully defend him against all Temptations to Sin, for the future; and vouchsafe him the efficacious, saving Conduct of his Word and Spirit."

December 7, 1692, Sewall was appointed one of the five justices of the Superior Court, a tribunal then established as the highest court in the province. This position he held for thirty-six years, during the last ten of which he was chief-justice. In 1739 his nephew, Stephen Sewall, became judge, afterwards, for eight years, chief-justice; after the Revolution, Samuel Sewall, great-grandson of the first judge, became chief-justice of the Supreme Court. In fact, the Sewalls have been a family of the long robe as distinctively as any of the famous instances in French history, sharing the distinction in Massachusetts with the Cushings. Sewall also continued for many years a member of the Council by annual election, but few instances are shown of his supporting any faction or party. He was a friend of Phips and his energetic lady, and a familiar acquaintance of Lt.-Gov. Stoughton. When the Earl of Bellomont arrived he was on equally good terms with him.

The present volume closes with December 28, 1699, or nearly with the century. It leaves Sewall at his happiest point—rich, respected, and surrounded with a family just arriving at maturity. Up to this time certainly his Journal gives but few personal characteristics. Throughout we find evidences that he was a devout Puritan, a worthy member of the Old South Church in Boston. His prayers and fasts were numerous, and doubtless genuine. His early training in theology gives a flavor, always apparent, to his reflections. It is, however, as difficult to make satisfactory selections from Sewall as it always has been from Pepys or Evelyn. The interest of the work lies not so much in any particular part as in the aggregation of the details of the whole record. In this volume we have the daily life of a Bostonian recorded for fifteen years. We enter imperceptibly into a knowledge of his surroundings, his joys and sorrows, his cares and his successes. We learn when his children are born, when they are ill, and when they die. We know, above all, about the daily occurrences of the town at a time when newspapers were not and the reporter was unimagined. To a Bostonian this volume and its successors will be simply invaluable. Thanks to Winthrop's 'Journal,' we had already a touching and authentic history of the first settlement of the town. The numerous pamphlets relative to Andros have given us an acquaintance with the men of that generation, which Sewall now comes to round out and complete.

We have only further to remark upon the editorial care which has been bestowed upon the work. The committee of publication consisted of Rev. George E. Ellis, Henry M. Torrey, and William H. Whitmore—our present minister to Spain, Mr. J. R. Lowell, having accepted his present duties just before the printing of this volume was begun. The elaborate genealogy of the Introduction, though unsigned, we can hardly be mistaken in attributing to Mr. Whitmore, and in by far the greater number of the notes, also, we confidently detect the hand of the editor of the Andros Tracts and the Boston Records Commissioner. It is enough to say of all his work and that of his colleagues (not forgetting the index) that it immeasurably heightens the value, and in no small degree the interest, of this publication, and that it is a remarkable instance of concentration of knowledge, of which one is at a loss whether most to admire the extent or the minuteness. Without being overdone or even obtrusive, it explains, amplifies, and completes the 'Diary' in a manner worthy of the good fame of its author, and of the civic pride whose gratification is always ample reward to the Boston antiquary.

A WHIG ORATOR.*

CHARLES FOX said that "no good speech ever read well," and, tried by this test alone, those contained in this volume must have been very good ones. Mr. Choate's speeches certainly do not read well; but if they have this mark of excellence they are disappointing in other and more important qualities. Two-thirds of this collection are historical or

literary addresses called forth by special occasions; the rest are political speeches. The latter, contrary to what would naturally be expected, are much the best. All are disfigured by a very bad style. Now and then a passage occurs which is nervous, forcible, and simple, but the sentences are as a rule complex, involved, and of intolerable length. Some of them actually cover a page or more, and read like an unpunctuated catalogue. That Mr. Choate should have made these interminable paragraphs bearable to his listeners would have been an extraordinary feat. Yet he not only did this but he charmed and swayed his audiences, and drew them with him through every varying mood. There could be no better proof than this of grace of manner, personal force, and the possession of great and real oratorical power. Mr. Choate's rhetoric, though deeply overloaded and at times strained, is often brilliant, and is always remarkable for an apparently unbounded vocabulary. He was too fond of Latin derivatives, and never adhered sufficiently to strong Saxon words, the use of which by Mr. Webster he highly commends. Yet with all his faults in this respect no one can read this collection and not be struck by the variety and richness of the language.

The historical addresses with which the volume opens are the most disappointing of all. They seem somewhat artificial, and they are singularly deficient in depth of thought. They play upon the surface, show but little originality, and have no mark of a strong mental grasp. They read like the hasty productions of a facile and brilliant mind; however well they may have sounded as they fell from the lips of Mr. Choate, they seem very superficial upon the printed page. The best oration in the book, although not free from defects of style, is the "Eulogy upon Daniel Webster," when the speaker was deeply moved by the truest feelings of love and admiration. The best speech is that upon the judicial tenure, delivered in the Massachusetts Convention of 1853. This speech is not only good in style, but it is a fine example of eloquent and exhaustive reasoning. No better defence of an appointed judiciary holding office during good behavior could be found, and there was certainly no subject upon which Mr. Choate put forth his great powers with more advantage to his fellow-citizens.

The political speeches close the volume, and they possess an historic interest which is wanting in the addresses. They are earnest and often eloquent, but they present a rather mournful picture of a typical leader of the Whigs. In these speeches we find the whole creed of the Whig party, and it is not difficult to see the causes of their fall. In speaking of the famous Compromise measures in 1850, Mr. Choate said: "And that henceforward every man, according to his measure and in his place, in his party, in his social, or his literary, or his religious circle, in whatever may be his sphere of influence, set himself to suppress the further political agitation of this whole subject [slavery]." That was the Whig doctrine, and very wretched doctrine it was. No one described the growth and progress of the anti-slavery sentiment better than Mr. Choate himself in his speech upon the annexation of Texas, and yet the only remedy he could suggest was its suppression. The leaders of the Northern Whigs were, above all others, the men whose duty it was to control and guide the anti-slavery movement, yet all they did was to try to put it aside and forget it and pretend that it had no right to exist. They were eternally crying "peace, peace," when there was no peace. With a blindness that must have been wilful, and was certainly unpardonable, they would not admit that the movement against slavery was inevitable and must succeed sooner or later. In 1856 Mr. Choate was denouncing the Republican party as a geographical and sectional party, which was a crime against the Constitution and the Union, while with unrivalled acuteness he questioned its objects and its principles. But there was one question he neither asked nor answered. He sought no explanation and offered none for the existence of a sectional Republican party. He did not tell his hearers that freedom was national and slavery sectional; that there had always been a sectional party in defence of slavery; that the South created geographical parties in 1820 and had maintained their side unflinchingly ever since. He did not confess that it was the South, and the South alone, that had called a geographical party of freedom into existence, and made such a party inevitable and strong. In one word, he did not say that slavery was a great wrong and must be effaced, and that he himself, and men like him, were ready to do all in their power to limit and extinguish it by peaceable, statesmanlike, and sure methods. On the contrary, all Mr. Choate could suggest was to vote for Buchanan in 1856, as Mr. Webster would have voted for Pierce in 1852. To throw the whole blame on the Abolitionists, to palliate and find excuses for the conduct of the South, to vote with the Democracy, this was all the Northern Whig leaders from Webster down could find to do.

* 'Addresses and Orations of Rufus Choate.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1878.

It is a sorry picture. Worst of all, these gentlemen had not the sincerity with which the slaveholders defended their peculiar institution, but fell back on ingenious sophistries about the true sphere of philanthropy, such as we find on page 416 of this volume. They failed miserably in a great crisis, and one and all were overthrown by the righteous public opinion which they strove to stifle when they should have guided it. These political speeches will be valuable as historical documents, but they will not heighten the fame of one of our greatest advocates. Mr. Choate's reputation as a lawyer, his attractions as a man, and his brilliant sayings, will be remembered with pleasure when nothing of his politics remains but the memory of their failure.

There are in this volume a few serious errors in matters of fact, for some of which Mr. Choate was no doubt responsible, but all of which ought to have been corrected by a careful editor. The English sloop burned by the Rhode-Islanders in 1772 was named the *Gaspé* or *Gaspee*, not the *Gaspar* (p. 33). The patent cancelled on account of Swift's Drapier Letters was a patent granted by George I., not by William III. (p. 129). Coleridge did not call the law "our guardian angel and our avenging friend" (p. 95), but our "avenging fiend." This is quoted correctly in another speech. A loosely-worded sentence on p. 200 gives the impression that the speaker referred to John Adams as the mover of the celebrated resolution to declare the Colonies independent. Richard Henry Lee, as is well known, moved this resolution on the 7th of June, 1776, and John Adams seconded it. None of these very obvious errors should have been allowed to appear.

Children's Books.—Mrs. Beesly's 'Stories from the History of Rome' (Macmillan) hits a want that most parents have felt, by providing a substitute for "fairy tales and the stories of nursery life" wherewith to amuse little children—from four to six years old in the author's own case. But her aim was not simply to amuse, and she selected these tales "with a view to illustrate the two sentiments most characteristic of Roman manners—duty to parents and duty to country"; and, further, she has "tried to indicate that the latter of these sentiments took precedence of the former." There may be in the present condition of England something that makes it advisable to indoctrinate British infants in this heroic fashion; we cannot tell. The result, however, is much like throwing raw beef to them, for a bloodier collection of stories could hardly be made from Fox's 'Book of Martyrs.' The very simplicity to which the legends have been reduced gives a nakedness to their barbarity which we trust would seem repulsive to cis-Atlantic mothers. The duel of the Horatii and Curiatii, which has no useful lesson for nineteenth-century children of any age, is noticeably unsoftened by this process. The book opens with the fable of Romulus and Remus, and ends with "How Pyrrhus Fought against Rome."

In 'The Bodleys on Wheels' (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) we have the third book of the adventures of this remarkable family. Mr. Scudder's pictorial resources have been enlarged by the consolidation of the publishers, and besides the cuts from the *Riverside Magazine* one recognizes a goodly number of illustrations from Osgood's standard works. The fiction which binds these together is a trip to Essex County, Mass., by private conveyance, and it may well be imagined that such historic ground is not exhausted in the present volume, and that we have the promise of a sequel. Like its predecessors, 'The Bodleys on Wheels' is more precious for its imported than for its original matter. Poems of Longfellow and Whittier, Anthony Thacher's quaint narrative of his shipwreck, the stories of Lady Frankland and Flud Ireson, the account of Lord Timothy Dexter, and the "Little Broom-Merchant" (Ruskin's translation), are the chief ingredients of the ingenious pot-pourri.

In 'Grammar-Land' (Henry Holt & Co.) we have an almost ideal dramatization of a dry and for children disheartening study. It does not go very far. Judge Grammar examines all the impersonated parts of speech in turn, and makes them declare by what sign they can be detected; the youthful reader gets a glimpse of conjugation, a fragment of syntax, and all the rest is pure fun and enjoyment. The humor is well sustained throughout, and Dr. Verb, Mr. Adjective, Mr. Adverb, etc., talk always in character. Since the author can point to the success of her *jeu d'esprit* as a text-book, we recommend it for the same purpose and heartily. Perhaps, however, those who have learned the rudiments by the old method will most delight in this new departure. Of course, also, it can be pleasurably read without thought of self-improvement.

The aim of the 'Young Folks' Series,' edited by Mr. George M. Towle and published by Lee & Shepard, Boston, is, according to the preface, "to relate truthfully the romantic and thrilling adventures of the

'heroes' who are to form the subjects of the volumes." If the volume on Vasco da Gama be taken as a sample, we have here the promise of an admirable series. To be sure, there is no certainty that the subjects will always be as felicitously chosen. The "hero" of the second volume, announced as in the press, Pizarro, is by no means a hero in any high sense of the word; and his life, moreover, full of interest as it is, has been so many times narrated that it will be hard to give it freshness. Vasco da Gama, on the other hand, has all requirements—a great but dim name, a character of real heroism, and exploits of the first order in the field of discovery. The story is told excellently well and the interest sustained throughout. Neither is it exclusively suited to children; the adventures are so unfamiliar and so exciting as well as instructive that adults, too, will find it worth reading. The style is just what it should be—no fine writing, no "writing down" to the assumed level of childhood, and, on the other hand, nothing above their comprehension. Quite young children, too, can get enjoyment from it. The illustrations are fairly good, some of them excellent.

The author of 'Parrots and Monkeys' (R. Worthington) makes a somewhat labored excuse for joining his birds and beasts together, the real *nexus* in his mind being not their frequent association in nature, but the fact that there is a great store of entertaining anecdotes about both. There have been better compilations than this, but a dull one on such a subject can hardly be made. The style is not suited to the youngest readers, who, nevertheless, seem to be the proper audience for such remarks as this (p. 10):

"These wild men of the woods, though imitative, have no reasoning power; they seem more really devoid of sense than other monkeys. For instance, a gorilla may find a fire left by some travellers, and he will sit over the embers as long as any heat remains, without ever thinking of putting on more fuel."

From the amount of reasoning power exhibited in this generalization, it would almost be necessary to infer that the writer was himself a gorilla. Elsewhere, however, he denies that he is even an "improved descendant of these brutes"—a notion that seems to him extraordinary, unreasonable, incredible. The book is tolerably illustrated. Some day we hope the infant mind may be trusted to form an adequate idea of the extent and variety of the monkey race by typical examples drawn to scale and arranged in the order of their height, and (if the thought is not too shocking) with the human figure thrown in by way of comparison.

'The Boy Engineers' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is by the Rev. J. Lukin, author of 'The Young Mechanic' and 'Amongst Machines,' with which it forms part of a series. The new volume deals with the mystery of the lathe, and stimulates the inventive faculty by showing how two lads made shift with a contrivance that seems very antiquated beside the iron lathes now made for boys at a wonderfully low price. In fact, the instruction is here thrown into the form of a story, which relieves it of much of its dryness. These heroes of the workshop make wooden clocks with automaton figures, an organ, a house, presently a steam-engine; indulge in wood-carving; and finish with some experiments in electricity. Not every boy can profit by this book or by the series, but where native aptitude is present these volumes will, we are sure, be found practically useful.

New Greece. By Lewis Sergeant. With Maps especially prepared for this work. (New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1878.)—If the Treaty of Berlin had produced a real settlement which was accepted at once and heartily by all parties concerned, there would hardly seem to be any occasion just now for such books as this. It consists of an attack upon the past and present policy of England in relation to Greece, and a vigorous advocacy of the claims of the unfortunate little kingdom to more territory and a real independence. The author urges with strong arguments the right of Greece to the control of Crete, Thessaly, Epirus, and of enough territory besides toward the Dardanelles and the Balkans to make her a first-class power. This he considers the true solution of the Eastern question, the establishment of a strong Christian state, not under the influence of Russia but owing its existence and strength mainly to England, and therefore likely to remain friendly to her interests in the Levant. The Greeks he considers the only people in that region who have shown themselves capable of organizing and conducting a civilized government with fair success against great obstacles. This he seeks to prove by the progress which they have made since their national existence began in 1832, or more especially since they have had a constitutional government conducted by a Greek Ministry. It is certainly surprising how much they have done within the last ten years or so, and it seems reasonable to explain

their rapid material development in part by the presence of a king who is popular chiefly because he knows how to reign without governing. Two instances of this progress may be quoted. In 1862 the exports of Greece amounted in value to thirty-two millions of drachmas; in 1873 to seventy-six millions. In 1868 there was not in the Piræus a single steam manufactory; in 1877 there were more than thirty. In the second part of his book Mr. Sergeant discusses the history of the kingdom of Greece with especial reference to the part England has played in it, as in the introductory chapter he discusses the policy in regard to Greece of the representatives of England at the Berlin Congress. He is an Englishman, and his criticism is therefore not that of an enemy, but he seems to show clearly that not a single English statesman since 1815, with the exception of Canning, and possibly of Gladstone, has been just to the Greeks, and that the present Ministry has actually broken pledges made to them. It may be said, it is true, that this is merely a partisan political pamphlet, but if so, it is certainly one that calls loudly for an answer and to which it will not be easy to give one. The book may be almost unreservedly commended to those who wish to see this side of the question strongly and not unfairly presented.

Modern Frenchmen. Five biographies by Philip Gilbert Hamerton. (Boston: Roberts Brothers.)—Mr. Hamerton, the well-known artist, has resided a long time in France, and has found much to admire in French life and in French character. English people, although only two hours away, generally know little of the French except what they see on the Boulevards and learn from comedies and novels, often coming in a questionable shape—French light literature putting its worst foot foremost to strangers, and tempting or disgusting them, as the case may be, with what an indignant French critic calls *feuilles de joie* and *littérature putride*. Mr. Hamerton has already taken pains to make his countrymen better acquainted with their neighbors. He has now written the lives of five persons who interested him—Victor Jacquemont, Perreyve, Rude, J. J. Ampère, and Regnault the painter. Not that they were all great men or celebrated; it is doubtful if the names of some of them have ever reached America. Three died too young to fulfil the promise of their youth. Regnault was not thirty when killed at the sortie of Buzenval during the siege of Paris. Jacquemont, the "traveller and naturalist," died in Bombay in his thirty-first year. Perreyve, the "ecclesiastic and orator," the long and generous dream of whose life was the union of Catholicism with liberty, ended it at thirty-four. François Rude, the sculptor, lived to be an old man. His "Fisher-boy playing with a Tortoise," exhibited in 1833, made him a celebrity in Paris, but did not give him a European reputation. J. J. Ampère had also his full share of years, but, though a learned, ingenious, and industrious author, he wrote nothing of first-rate merit, either as to thought or style. There is, therefore, little new or remarkable to be learned from these lives if we look at them in the ordinary way. Mr. Hamerton was attracted to them by a nobility of character they all possessed, which in its perfection is a higher quality than genius. They were pure, simple, energetic men, whose rule of life was truth, honor, duty. They believed in honest work, doing with all their might what their hands found to do and leaving the rest to fortune; not working for the means of luxury, or to rise for the sake of rising, but to accomplish a duty; satisfied with the position they occupied, not trying to be or to seem something else; sterling silver, not electro-plated. Surely such lives are worthy to be shown as examples to an age whose chief deity is "Almighty Plutus, lord of earth and giver of all good"; whose active men seek to do the thing which will be useful to themselves rather than the thing which is right in itself; while the great majority, weak and unreasonable, are discontented with their position, longing for wealth and consideration without the energy and courage to work for them.

Whether useful or not as a medicine for the times, Mr. Hamerton has made his book pleasant to take. He knows how to write; he has the gift of style. "Modern Frenchmen" will attract the lover of good literature as well as the moralist. No one who reads it will be disappointed with it or will soon forget it.

History of Geauga and Lake Counties, Ohio; with illustrations and biographical sketches of its pioneers and most prominent men. (Philadelphia: Williams Brothers. 1878. 4to, pp. 259.)—The form of this volume is a novelty in county histories, and it cannot be said to be an example worthy of imitation. It is, however, well adapted for the equally original style of illustrations with which it is profusely provided, and which, on the largest scale, represent prosperous farms and villas

and authentic portraits of their owners, all done on the same lithographic stone. Besides these there are several well-executed steel engravings of the more eminent citizens of these counties, and a great number of woodcut likenesses scattered through the text. The wives and daughters are commemorated in the same way, though not to the same extent, as the men; and the work, without regard to the text, is worth studying for its typical examples of American physiognomy and character.

When the text is examined, the only really readable portions (for a non-resident) are the biographical sketches, which, as in the case of Gen. Garfield and Mr. Albert G. Riddle, Capt. S. L. Phelps (now one of the Commissioners of the District of Columbia) and Gen. H. E. Paine (the new Commissioner of Patents), are very elaborate and possess a national interest. These counties were carved out of the Connecticut Western Reserve, and have been settled about eighty years, primarily from Connecticut and other parts of New England. The nature of the soil determined the agricultural destiny of the population, which reached its maximum twenty years ago—in 1846 or 1847 in the case of Geauga. The villages have increased in number, while the inhabitants have fallen off. Of this decline it is stated, on p. 210, that

"The causes which produced it acted with a uniform force throughout the purely farming districts of northern Ohio, with local variations. These were in part a change in the course of agriculture, a disposition on the part of all to increase the acreage of their ownership—the more forehanded buying the smaller farms, and their owners seeking cheaper and often better lands in the newer farther west. During the decade of the greatest loss, from 1860 to 1870, the war intervened to increase what may be called the natural depopulation, which began about 1860."

This New England colony shared the anti-slavery feeling which animated the whole Reserve, and has its stories (now almost legends) of fugitive-slave rescues; and polygamy, which has been called the twin relic of barbarism with slavery, was not less in disfavor. The Mormons settled in Kirtland township (now Lake Co.) in 1831, but were fairly persecuted out in the course of five years.

Wilson's and Bonaparte's American Ornithology. "Popular edition." (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1878. Large 8vo, 3 vols. in one.)—The work of the "melancholy poet-naturalist" is more nearly classic than any other treatise upon American ornithology, the peculiar position it occupies in the literature of this subject being too well known to require comment. Wilson was no scholar in any branch of knowledge, and appears to have been very unlearned in ornithology even, when he began his work; but his genius, taste, assiduity, and love of truth enabled him to produce a luminous treatise, now well understood to possess no authority in the technicalities, though freer from erroneous statements in natural history proper than any other ornithological work of equal extent. Following close upon the period when Pennant and Latham, Barton and Bartram, and Vieillot were leading authorities, the work originally appeared in nine large thin quarto volumes, dated 1808-1814. The *editio princeps* is expensive, and has long been practically inaccessible to the public. Vol. vii., 1813, was the last published by Wilson himself, who died August 23, 1813, the work being concluded from Wilson's inedited materials, with much editorial matter, by George Ord. Between 1825 and 1829 Ord published another edition of the work, including his life of Wilson, in three volumes octavo, with a folio atlas, and 'Ord's Wilson' has always been a standard edition. Meanwhile, the Prince Bonaparte, as appears by his 'Observations on the Nomenclature of Wilson's Ornithology,' 1824-25, became greatly interested in the work, and, with true Napoleonic foresight, conceived the idea of linking his name with Wilson's by producing a work in similar style, if not spirit—a plan which matured in his 'American Ornithology,' 4 vols. 4to, 1825-33. The title and mechanical execution of 'Bonaparte' make it appear like a continuation of 'Wilson,' and from the incorporation of these two works in one, by successive editors, comes the 'Wilson's and Bonaparte's American Ornithology' with which the public is familiar. In 1831, Prof. R. Jameson, of Edinburgh, prepared a 'Wilson and Bonaparte,' with much irrelevant matter and without any plates, in four 18mo volumes, forming vols. lxviii.-lxxi. of 'Constable's Miscellany,' and in 1832 Sir William Jardine published in London another edition in three volumes octavo, with editorial annotations, including a revision of Wilson's nomenclature. The 'Jardine' became the standard English edition; and Dr. T. M. Brewer, of Boston, prepared from it a cheap edition in 1 vol. 12mo, 1840, with the original plates so reduced that two or three of them could be printed on so small a page, appending an original synopsis of the birds of North America then known to him. The 'Brewer' has hitherto been the only cheap American edition of 'Wilson,' and does not contain 'Bona-

parte.' It has been long out of print, the latest issue we have seen cited being of 1852.

In 1871 Messrs. Porter & Coates published a handsome edition of 'Ord's Wilson' and 'Bonaparte,' in three large octavo volumes of text, and two folios of colored plates—one containing Wilson's 76, the other Bonaparte's 27, and both being substantially the same as the originals. The textual characteristic of the Porter & Coates issue is that it includes a reprint of S. F. Baird's 'Catalogue of North American Birds,' 1858, being an octavo reissue, with modification, of pp. xxv.-lv. of vol. ix., 'Pacific Railroad Reports,' 4to, 1858. The present "popular edition" of Wilson's and Bonaparte's respective works is made up from that of 1871, said to cost \$100, and sells for \$7 50—the three volumes being now bound in one, with interrupted pagination. The text is substantially identical, the great difference in price resulting from such reduction of the plates that several of them may be printed on a page, as in the 'Brewer' 12mo edition; there being, in fact, little difference between these two editions in the size of the illustrations. The 76 + 27 plates of the originals are here represented on twenty-eight sheets, for the most part giving three or four sets of figures, grouped as in the originals, and maintaining to a degree their characteristics. They are coarsely executed and uncolored. The edition answers all the practical purposes of those who may not be particular respecting illustration, and it is of great advantage to have a faithful and respectable presentation of the text of 'Wilson and Bonaparte' in convenient and inexpensive form.

Plays for Private Acting. Translated from the French and Italian by members of the Bellevue Dramatic Club, of Newport, R. I. Leisure Hour Series. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878. Pp. 355.)—We have from time to time made mention of the successive volumes of the 'Théâtre de Campagne,' projected by M. Ernest Legouvé, and of 'Saynètes et Monologues,' a series in some sort rivaling it. Only one of the plays in the book before us is taken from the Italian. The remaining twenty have been chosen from the sixty-two plays in the five earlier volumes of the two French series. It will be seen that the American editor is more generous than his French predecessor, and it may be said at once that the volume is one for which the patrons of private theatricals should be thankful. The English version here given of M. Legouvé's "By a Cradle" is just the thing to suit the smallest company of performers: it calls for one only, a lady, just as the "Journey to . . ." adapted from M. Charles Cros, is an excellent recitation for a man. But there is, perhaps, an over-abundance of monologues in the volume—there are ten of them—and they, like the rest of the plays, suffer for lack of compression. French dialogue is lighter than ours, and when it is rendered into English it seems emptier, and calls more clamorously for condensation; and to turn the delightful "Billet de Faire Part" of M. Jacques Normand, one of the airiest and most graceful bits of recent French *vers de société*, into bald prose is to rob it of all its charm, and to leave it without any excuse for existence. The spirit of the exhilarating "Lettre du Fusilier Bridet" has been caught as well as may be, but here again only a fraction of the effect of the French original can be imported into English. The translators have had more success in the little dialogue dramas than in the monologues; the "Old Homestead," after André Theuriet, and the "Flower of Tlemcen," after Legouvé and Méricme, are well done. What was, perhaps, the most amusing and the most apropos play in the 'Théâtre de Campagne,' the "Soupière" of M. Ernest d'Hervilly, does not fare as well here as it did at the hands of Mr. H. C. Bunner, who published an adaptation of it, called "Keramics," in *Puck* a few months ago.

The plays have not always been selected as judiciously as was possible. It would have been better to omit both "His Hat and his Cane" and a "Trip through my Pockets." There are, as we lately remarked (*Nation*, No. 635), very few pieces in any of the four volumes of the 'Théâtre de Campagne' unfit for general reading, and when saying this we expressly excepted, among others, "Sa Canne et son Chapeau." Two errors of the press remain to be pointed out: on page 289 M. Grévin, the well-known comic artist, is called M. Grevu; and both in the table of contents and at the head of the play itself the "Registered Letter" is said to be by M. Gustave Droz; it is in fact the production of M. Eugène Labiche, and it so appears in the second series of the 'Théâtre de Campagne.' 'Plays for Private Acting' is the ninety-ninth volume of the Leisure Hour Series.

Sound. By Prof. A. M. Mayer. Experimental Science Series. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.)—The teacher of science labors under

many difficulties, not the least of which is the need of a good text-book in his subject. It is difficult to combine a philosophical and historical treatment of the sciences classed under the general term "Physics" with an experimental one. In the schools, at present, the teaching of experimental science is for the most part neglected. Prof. Mayer has endeavored to show how more attention can profitably be devoted to laboratory work. This little work on Sound, like that which preceded it on Light, bears the evidence of much thought, and is full of ingenious experiments. The author shows how apparatus can be constructed at little expense by the student himself, or, in case the means are not at hand, he adds a price-list of the apparatus needed to perform the experiments described in the book, together with a reference to a mechanic who is ready to supply it at moderate prices. Many of the experiments are new, such as those involving the use of Prof. Rood's disc to show the reflection of sound, and those in the analysis and synthesis of sounds. Most teachers will desire to add something to this book, but all will be profited as much as their pupils by its perusal and use.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
American Catalogue, Vol. I, Part 1, A-Edwards, swd	(F. Leypoldt)
Arnold (T.), English Literature, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.) \$5 25
Bailey (J. M.), England from a Back Window	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Beesly (Mrs.), Stories from the History of Rome	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Bewick's Select Fables	(Longmans, Green & Co.)
Bucknill (Dr. J. C.), Habitual Drunkenness	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Burnard (F. C.), Through the Keep-It-Dark Continent	(Rose-Belford Pub. Co.) 50
Calvert (G. H.), Wordsworth: a Study	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Capes (Rev. W. W.), Livy: Books XXI. and XXII.	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 50
Carl's First Days	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 1 00
Chambers (W.), Stories of Remarkable Persons	(R. Worthington) 1 50
Cherbuliez (V.), L'Idée de Jean Téterol, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Jean Téterol's Idea	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Church (Rev. A. J.) and Brodrick (Rev. W. J.), Tacitus: Annals, Book VI.	(Macmillan & Co.) 90
Collins (W.), The Haunted Hotel	(Rose-Belford Pub. Co.)
Da Costa (Dr. J. M.), Harvey and his Discovery	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Dana (J. D.), Manual of Mineralogy and Lithology, 3d ed.	(John Wiley & Sons) 2 00
Farrar (Rev. F. W.), Life of Christ, Parts I-33, swd	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)
Fox (Dr. C. B.), Sanitary Examinations of Water, Air, and Food	(Lindsay & Blackleton)
Frænke (K.), Lateinische Schulpoesie des XII. und XIII. Jahrhunderts, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Goodridge (J. F.), Mother Goose Rhymes with Silhouette Illustrations	(Lee & Shepard) 50
Hamann (A.), Lessing's Laokoon	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Harland (Marion), The Dinner Yoke	(Charles Scribner's Sons) 2 25
Holland (H. W.), William Dawes and his Ride with Paul Revere	(Boston)
Jewett (Sarah O.), Play-days: a Child's Story	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Johnson (Elizabeth W.), The Studio Arts	(Henry Holt & Co.) 60
Lacombe (P.), Short History of the French People	(Henry A. Young & Co.) 1 25
Lang (R. H.), Cyprus	(Macmillan & Co.) 3 50
Miller (Emily H.), Little Neighbors	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 1 50
Morice (F. D.), Stories in Attic Greek	(Rivingtons)
Raymond (R. W.), The Book of Job	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Savage (J.), Picturesque Ireland, Part 3, swd	(Thomas Kelly)
Scribner's Monthly, Vol. 15, 16	(Scribner & Co.)
Sergeant (L.), New Greece	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 3 50
St. Nicholas, Vol. 5	(Scribner & Co.)
Sidgwick (A.), Cicero's De Amicitia	(Rivingtons)
Stoughton (Rev. J.), Our English Bible	(Scribner & Welford) 2 00
Townsend (Virginia F.), A Woman's Word: a Tale	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Turner (J. M.), The Comprehensive Church	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 50
Vail (Rev. T. H.), The Comprehensive Church	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Yonge (Miss C. M.), Story of the Christians and Moors in Spain	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Zola (E.), Hélène: a Tale, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 50

Fine Arts.

DECORATIVE ART SOCIETY'S LOAN EXHIBITION.—III.

THE PICTURES.

IN the *World* of Sunday last were two pieces of information rather interesting to students of painting. One of them contained, in a judicious and suggestive paper on this very Loan Exhibition of pictures, a quotation from M. Taine, to the effect that "nobody paints nude subjects nowadays but from blackguardism or pedantry." The *World* does not quote it with approval or adhesion to the absurd doctrine contained in it; and might have said with justice that to make such a statement is to characterize one's ignorance of art more decidedly than a good-natured critic would wish to do. The other passage in the *World* is an item of news. It is stated that an engraving, or reproduction of some kind, of Hans Makart's immense picture, which has formed and still forms the centre and chief ornament of the Austrian art-gallery at the Paris Exposition, had been hanging until lately in a shop-window downtown, until one morning the frame appeared empty of its picture, and bearing a sarcastic legend to the effect that the Society for the Suppression of Vice had ordered it taken away. If this is true the time has come for some public-spirited person to resist the Society named above, and, if possible, punish such uncalled-for interference with private rights. Makart's picture is thirty feet long, and the figures in the extreme foreground are much larger than life—those in the middle distance and full light are life-size; it stands all across one of the entrances to the Austrian gallery, and an honor is paid to it which no other picture of all the thousands at the Champ-de-Mars this year has received—fixed seats are set before it at what is assumed to be the best distance. Now a

small colored print of it is pronounced unfit for a New York shop-window. If this picture should be brought to New York and exhibited at fifty cents admission, would agents of this Society dare to interfere?

These remarks are caused by the presence in the gallery of the Loan Exhibition of a painting by M. Bouguereau, No. 70 of the catalogue. Certainly, this artist's work has no great charm in it; the *World* says it has "no qualities at all"; and in France he seems to be known rather as a painter of mild religious pictures and as a favorite of the priests. Of his eleven pictures in the Paris Exhibition five are subjects of saints with stout golden glories round their heads, and the gentle sentimentality of such of his paintings as we see here may be supposed to be what he thinks the only religion possible to heretics. The picture mentioned above is better worth study than any other of the artist's canvases we have seen in America, because in it his aim has been purely artistic, and what there is in him of good and not so good is to be seen unmingled with an attempt to please a supposed popular taste for mild, young-ladyish sentiment.

Herr Makart, for his part, has nothing here that anybody can object to. His two pictures, each of one life-size figure, are in the corridor, and are interesting to those who like the golden brown with which he loves to invest his work. M. Jacquet and M. Madrazo are represented each by a study or portrait showing the head and shoulders—these pictures also of life-size. The former painter is a young man, it appears, and pupil of M. Bouguereau. The picture in question seems to us an improvement on his master in many ways, and its flesh-painting should be compared with the unnatural bloom of M. Madrazo's lady at breakfast, who is *fardée*, if ever woman was. The most important full-sized figure, except the Jules Breton mentioned last week, is the portrait of a Spanish lady by the late Mariano Fortuny, said in the catalogue to be the only portrait he ever painted—but this must be taken with qualifications. Perhaps it is the only portrait of a lady not a model, of full size, and in oil. One can find faults in it, but its extraordinary merits are much more noteworthy and much more to the purpose. An olive-complexioned young woman wearing a black silk dress buttoned with coral, and a little pretty lace, with bare head and hands, and in the most unstudied of all attitudes, as if she were just passing behind the frame and had stopped to look out through it—this is quite the ideal portrait, in many significances. The above is No. 55. No. 76 is a little study of a single figure, and much more like what one thinks of when Fortuny's name is spoken.

That American favorite, M. Jean Léon Gérôme, is represented here by three pictures, of which No. 37 is perhaps the best—so much more satisfactory is his painting of Persian tiles than of human figures. This is the interior of a Persian inn, with fire-place whose immense projecting hood is wholly sheathed with richly-painted pottery-tiles—not unlike the few fine ones which appear in actual existence in the corridor on each side of the entrance to the Oriental Room, just at the head of the main stairs. No. 52 is the well-known picture, described in the catalogue as "Molière breakfasting with Louis XIV. at Versailles." The title is not exactly correct, nor is the scene as Mr. Gérôme has painted it exactly correct, according to Madame Campan's version; but as the whole story is denied, as if by authority, that inaccuracy need concern us little. What is more noticeable is the error the catalogue makes in calling the ecclesiastic in blue Cardinal Mazarin. The cardinal had been dead and Louis had been "his own first minister" some three years when this little rebuke to the king's gentlemen is supposed to have been administered; and if he ever appeared in blue silk in the king's apartment proof of the fact should be furnished; "if true, it is not true seeming." Right near this picture hangs the only Alma-Tadema in the collection. Mr. Alma-Tadema, Dutch or English at pleasure, is the king of painters of surfaces and textures, of stuffs and marble, of bronze and wood; nor is he deficient in skill as a painter of flesh, as those can testify who have seen his picture called "The Sculptor's Model," a nude figure of life-size, a really extraordinary work. In the little picture before us some part of his prodigious skill is displayed, particularly in the marble font and the decorative bronze chair near it, presumably a piece of Roman work of a couple of centuries before the scene passing in the picture. Mr. Alma-Tadema's archaeology is always careful, and sometimes more than careful—almost imaginative; and in this picture we especially enjoy the fragments of Roman buildings made to do duty in a Franco-Gaulish building, the granite columns set on a stylobate without bases, and the bits of architrave used so unconsciously as mere ornament while flat arches above do the work.

In our brief space we have sought to name only those artists who seem to be fairly well represented in the gallery; but the military pictures,

however inadequate, require a word. M. Détaillé is making wonderful progress in the higher qualities of his art, and there are points in his picture of a Hussar officer, No. 32, in which Meissonier could not match him. His larger paintings do not often come our way, as they are of purely French and modern warlike scenes. French amateurs are naturally more ready than our own to pay their very high prices. He is a young man, and bids fair to become the best painter of modern military subjects. M. Berne-Bellecour and M. A. M. de Neuville, also painters of great merit in the same line of art, have each one small study, both of which are of great interest.

THE COLLECTIONS OF ORNAMENTAL ART.

Perhaps the most remarkable single exhibition is that of the stuffs and embroideries in the Oriental Room and the corridor-cases attached to it. More extensive exhibits of china and jade, of jewelry and plate have been made elsewhere, but we know of no instance in which such a show of fine textile fabrics has been opened publicly. The beauty of Japanese silks has only begun to dawn upon our collectors. Japanese decorative art is popular enough, but there are great differences in the values of different developments of it, and in none is a more positive and remarkable success achieved than in the silks, whether simple in pattern and of two or three simple shades, or blazing with a score of vivid colors and gold thread. There have been a great many fine pieces brought to the United States, ancient as well as modern, robes not unworn as well as the stuff in "breadths"; and a great deal is owned here in New York. Indeed, nothing but lack of wall-space prevented the collections from being much larger, and nothing but lack of case-room forbade the addition of many fine and delicate embroideries that could not be shown except under glass.

In the Exhibition of last year there was no Chinese porcelain except a few blue and white pieces—of great beauty, to be sure—in one case. This year there is a not large yet a considerable display, chiefly of varieties of color. Mr. Avery's very extensive collection, large and rich if tried even by an European standard, has been drawn upon, and the pieces taken from it are chiefly "colored glazes, splash, soufflé, and crackle"; moreover some very good rose-color, blue, ivory-white, and other plain-colored porcelain is loaned by other persons. There are a few very fine pieces of Oriental porcelain painted in enamels with flowers and figures. There are but few fine pieces of Japanese ornamental pottery, but among those few are some of unusual beauty. The case of rough wares loaned by the Japanese Manufacturing and Trading Company will give to many persons a new idea of the delicate feeling for subdued color and quiet ornamentation possessed by the extraordinary people of the most eastern of lands.

The collection of European pottery is rather varied and instructive than rich. The opening came so early in the season that exceptional treasures could not be got out of their safes and storehouses by owners who were away from town. English pottery and china is perhaps the most fully represented.

In the West Gallery is a collection more miscellaneous than those of the other rooms, and therefore far less instructive and less interesting to students and amateurs. The charm of such a gathering of objects as is possible in an exhibition of this nature lies in the opportunity for comparison: one is able to compare Kioto decoration with that of Satsuma—the painting of Sèvres with that of Dresden, and the like; and, moreover, to compare one piece of Sèvres or of Satsuma with another piece of the same ware. But for this examination, really instructive and interesting in the best sense, a collection like that in the west room substitutes the separate impressions produced by separate and unclassified objects. There is, indeed, a case of carved ivories, and these are worthy of detailed description; and the frame of embroideries and stuffs belonging to Mrs. Hoe includes some most admirable Turkish and Rumanian embroideries which illustrate one another and help one another wonderfully.

These small Loan Exhibitions, held year after year, afford a means of adding to the knowledge and taste of the community which ought to be improved in every possible way. Better cases would be one great help; a much fuller scheme of labelling the objects exposed would be a still greater advantage; there is not time to make a classified catalogue, but descriptive labels are in some ways better, and have only one serious defect—that they disfigure the cases; they should be small and of some neutral color. But these improvements cost money. A public-spirited person, desirous to instruct his townsmen and to spare the treasury of the society, might do a good act in providing one or both of these needed improvements.

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